

THIRD POSITION RESPONSES IN FRENCH NATIVE AND NON NATIVE-
SPEAKER INTERACTION

BY

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DISSERTATION

Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in French
in the Graduate College of the
University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, 2012

Urbana, Illinois

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ABSTRACT

This project uses conversational analytic methodology to understand how French native speakers and non-native speakers produce third position responses (i.e., question-answer-follow up responses) in a sequence of talk. Specifically, the first part of the project focuses on how French native speakers produce third position responses. The findings for the French native speakers come from a nine hour corpus consisting of naturally occurring conversations, either in the form of audio recorded telephone calls or video recorded mealtime interactions. The second part of the project was a teaching unit in which the most frequently occurring French native speaker third position responses were taught to learners of French to see how effective the learners were at incorporating the third position responses in their conversational repertoires.

The first part of the study found a variety of categories for third position responses such as the change of state token (Heritage 1984) *ahh* / ‘oh,’ assessments, acknowledging and confirming new information with *oui* / ‘yes’ and *d’accord* / ‘all right,’ understanding, and surprised responses such as *ah bon* / ‘oh really.’ These categories in French had similar roles to their equivalents in English and other languages. The majority of categories were sequence-closing thirds, meaning that the topic was oriented to as complete by the person producing the third position response. The one exception was with surprised responses where the sequence was actually expanded.

The second part of the study taught the most frequently occurring third position responses (assessments, understanding, surprised responses, and acknowledging/accepting new information) to beginning learners of French to see how well learners could use the various third position responses in their talk. Specifically, this part consisted of three phases: a pre-task phase where pairs were video recorded asking and responding to questions in French before the

teaching unit; a task phase where learners were taught how to use the French third position responses and practiced them in a speaking task; a post-task phase three days after task phase where pairs again asked and responded to questions. Each pair's pre-task interaction was compared with its corresponding post-task interaction to see how each pair developed in the pragmatic appropriateness of their talk (i.e., their use of appropriate third position responses). Overall, it was found that the majority of subjects increased their percentage of production of third position responses in the post-task phase when compared with their production rates in the pre-task phase. Additionally, it was noted that most subjects used the third position responses appropriately when compared with how the French native speakers used them in native speaker-native speaker interactions. This demonstrates that naturalistic pedagogical materials can be effectively incorporated into the language classroom curriculum.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I wish to thank all of those involved who contributed in one way or another to helping me complete this dissertation project. Without all of their continual help and support this project could not have been accomplished.

First, I would like to sincerely thank the members of my dissertation committee: Professors Andrea Golato, Peter Golato, Numa Markee, and Zsuzsanna Fagyal. I will forever be grateful to my director of research, Andrea Golato, for her endless mentoring and support from the very beginning up through the very end of the dissertation project. I am also very thankful to her for introducing me to Conversation Analysis. All of the time, effort, and enjoyment that both of us put into the project will forever serve as inspiration to me as I work as a professor in my future career. She will always be a model for me as I work with and mentor my own students.

My PhD advisor Peter Golato was also someone that I will forever remember for his compassion, support, and sense of humor throughout the dissertation project. During the times that I must have appeared to be a bundle of nerves or stressed out, he would always have something witty and appropriate to say to help me focus on the big picture. His helpful advice and comments on my writing and research will always be remembered. He and Andrea make a fantastic team, and I can't imagine working without both of them.

Professor Numa Markee will always serve as an example of what it truly means to be a researcher and a scholar. Every time that I had him for a graduate seminar in Conversation Analysis, TBLT, or qualitative research methods, I came away with a deep and genuine understanding of the material thanks to his helpful explanations and examples of the topic at hand. I always appreciated how he could take a problematic concept or theme and explain it in a

way so that I could better understand it. Perhaps one day I will have as many interesting travel stories to share with my own students as he did with us in class!

Professor Zsuzsanna Fagyal was nothing short of a nurturing and friendly mentor to me since the very beginning of my graduate studies at Illinois. Even though I never took a course with her, my interactions with her at conferences or in the French Linguistics and SLATE group proved very stimulating and beneficial. She always made topics related to language and culture very pertinent and relevant to me when she would explain things in a way that caught my attention. Her nice words of encouragement on my various accomplishments throughout my graduate career at Illinois were always welcome and helped me achieve my goals.

I would also like to express my deep gratitude to Professor Cristina Toharia for all of the times she gave me helpful insights on language teaching and pedagogy that ultimately inspired me to pursue them in part of my dissertation project. The many meetings that we had about teaching and pedagogy will forever shape the way I teach and interact with my students.

My friends from the Department of French, current and former graduate students – Richard Beyoglé, Leila Ennaili, Stéphanie Gaillard, Azeb Haileselassie, Dan Maroun, Tricia McLeroy, Michael Mulryan, Errol O’Neil, Christopher Stewart, and Jessica Sturm – helped make my seven years as a graduate student more bearable and enjoyable. Whether it was talking to them in their offices as a new student, working with them as a fellow coordinator, or going out to socialize after work, I learned a lot from them and continue to consult them for advice on how to work within the field of French.

My closest friends, both from undergraduate and graduate school – Chris Armstrong, Luke Bard, Becca Bregel, Trevor Fanning, Kris Iwamoto, Jason Keeler, Brian Scherschel, Jason Taylor, and Mark Wallis – have made this journey both enjoyable and bearable. I don’t think

words can adequately describe the ways that they have helped me remain sane and sociable throughout my nine total years of graduate school (two at Notre Dame and then seven at Illinois). These friends, through their supportive listening, advice, and humor helped me through some of the most stressful periods of my graduate school career and were always there to help pull me up when I stumbled along the way. Without them I honestly wouldn't be the person I am today.

And finally, my deepest and most profound thanks of all goes to all the members of my immediate family – my parents, five siblings, and my grandparents (both living and deceased). They are always the first people I go to for advice and a sympathetic ear whenever a problem or issue arises. They have always helped me to remain calm and collected throughout the stages of graduate school and the hurdles of completing this project. I love you all very much, and am truly fortunate to have you and your wisdom in my life!

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Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Introduction

One of the major goals of most adult second language learners is to learn the target language well enough to converse with native speakers of that particular language. Specifically, learners want to be understood by native speakers of the target language so that they can accomplish specific goals or activities in their second language just as they do in their own first language. In order to reach such levels of fluency in the target language, most learners spend many hours in a classroom engaged in various speaking activities with the instructor and with their peers. However, the question of how well such activities typically prepare learners for future interactions with native speakers of the target language is an ongoing one that has yet to find a tangible answer.

When learners are engaged in traditional types of classroom speaking activities, there are two specific types of talk that occur within the language classroom: teacher-student talk and peer-to-peer talk. Specifically, recent research (Markee 2000; Markee & Kasper 2004; Markee 2005; Bowles & Seedhouse 2007; Markee 2008) has shown that these two types of interaction differ in that learners use the target language differently in each situation. Furthermore, recent work (Kasper 2004a; Markee 2004; Seedhouse 2004; Hellermann 2008) has shown that teacher-student talk generally sets up the framework in which one participant is seen as the language expert to provide knowledge to the other participant who is learning. The peer-to-peer talk is where the learners converse together in a less structured turn-taking environment and try to incorporate newly acquired linguistic knowledge into their talk (Mondada & Pekarek Doehler 2004; Mori 2004; Hellermann 2007, 2008; Hellermann & Cole 2008; Markee 2008). Strategies for successfully engaging and succeeding in peer-to-peer talk are fundamental, in that learners

need to become more self-reliant as there will typically be no instructor to rely on in future interactions with native speakers. Both types of talk, however, typically use materials that are provided by the textbook and which present putatively authentic dialogues and conversations taking place between native speakers of the target language. .

A major issue that exists with many language textbooks, however, is that the textbooks do not base these supposed authentic dialogues and conversations on naturalistic data (Myers-Scotton and Bernstein 1988; Wong 2002; Huth & Taleghani-Nikazm 2006; Huth 2007).

Additionally, language instructors may not be native speakers of the target language or have access to native speakers, leaving them with little or no choice but to accept what the textbooks print as authentic materials. Furthermore, research (Beebe & Cummings 1985; Wolfson 1989; Herbert 1990; Rose 1994; Rose & Ono 1995; Hinkel 1997) has shown that native speakers of a given language cannot always accurately state how the language is used. One possible issue, stemming from this combination of traditional materials and activities not informed by naturalistic data, is how learners will ultimately be perceived by native speakers in interaction. For example, previous work (Albrechtsen et al. 1980; Ludwig 1982) has reported on the perceived irritability in native speakers who interact with learners that have been taught in traditional ways, and as result, the researchers advocate for different ways to teach interactional skills. According to some language learners, as reported by Wilkinson (2002), such outcomes can be quite discouraging when learners finally have the opportunity to use the target language with native speakers.

With specific reference to classroom-based teaching and learning of French, a possible way to help overcome this lack of authentic conversational materials in the language classroom is to supply instructors and students with examples of authentic naturalistic conversation between

French native speakers. In order to see if such authentic materials can help language learners sound more like native speakers, the current study will present language learners with naturalistic conversational data from French native speakers, in a speaking task in which the learners will incorporate examples of native speaker talk into their own talk. The authentic talk from French native speakers will serve as a base line for how learners should attempt to structure their talk while engaged in peer-to-peer talk. The learners will engage in peer-to-peer talk amongst themselves in pairs or small groups outside of class following an in-class introduction of the material.

Specifically, the examples of authentic French conversational data will show how French native speakers close down a sequence of talk. That is, within the framework of Conversation Analysis, which studies the orderliness of talk on a turn-by-turn basis from the perspective of the participants involved in the talk, a sequence of talk is composed of various turns. For example, after an action has been accomplished in the talk, such as asking one participant about a movie that he or she recently watched, receiving that participant's opinion, and then assessing/reacting to that opinion, that particular action in that sequence of talk can be considered to be complete if both participants orient to it being complete. This type of sequence-closing activity is the focus of the French native speaker materials to be presented to the language learners in the current study.

A logical question that arises is how it can be shown that language learners are accurately incorporating the native speaker talk into their own use of the target language. Conversation Analysis has proven itself as an appropriate research tool for such endeavors (Huth & Taleghani-Nikazm 2006; Huth 2007). This research method will allow me to first analyze the French native speaker talk from the perspective of the French native speakers, and discuss how native

speakers orient to a particular action within the talk being accomplished before moving on to the next action to be accomplished. This analysis of the French native speaker data as a base line will then allow me to introduce authentic target language examples through classroom instruction, and then determine to what degree the language learners are able to incorporate these examples into their own talk .

If it can be shown that incorporating more authentic conversational materials into the language classroom allows for language learners to converse more like native speakers in the peer-to-peer talk, then the outcome will be something for language instructors and material writers to consider when preparing future materials and activities for the language classroom. That is, if the learners are able to sound more native like in their talk and perhaps thereby increase their confidence in speaking the target language, then this suggests an alternative to how language instructors should present materials and additionally what types of speaking activities to include in their lessons. This will ultimately prepare the learners to help accomplish the goal of being able to use the language more effectively when they are speaking with native speakers or are immersed in the target culture.

Chapter 2: Review of Literature

2.1 Conversation Analysis

This aim of this chapter is to summarize the literature that is relevant for the current study on sequence-closing thirds in French native speaker talk and French language learner talk. The chapter begins with a general overview of Conversation Analysis (CA) since this is the way the data in the current study will be analyzed. The chapter then moves on to describe the more specific aspects of CA including sequence organization, adjacency pairs, sequence-closing thirds and repair within conversation. Following the discussion on CA, the chapter then focuses on relevant research dealing with classroom interaction between teacher and students and between students themselves. Next the chapter reviews how current language textbooks may or may not take actual conversational data into consideration when teaching students how to speak in the target language. Specific to the current study, a review of the introductory French textbook used at UIUC, *Vis-à-vis*, is also included. Finally, the chapter finishes with a focus on why language instructors and learners may want to consider different approaches to target language conversations in the language classroom.

CA is the most salient research methodology for the current project of analyzing French native speaker and French language learner data in the classroom due to its emic perspective. That is, CA allows for the data to be analyzed from the participants' perspective. Utilizing such an approach for the analysis of language learner data is highly desirable since it allows the researcher to look objectively at how the co-participants involved in the interaction orient to the topic that is being discussed. Hutchby and Wooffitt (2008) echo this claim when they discuss the theoretical underpinnings of CA:

CA's aim is to focus on the production and interpretation of talk-in-interaction as an orderly accomplishment that is oriented to by the participants themselves. CA seeks to uncover the organization of the talk not from any extraneous viewpoint, but from the perspective of how the participants display for one another their understanding of 'what is going on' (Hutchby & Wooffitt 2008: 13).

This focus on the ongoing interaction between the co-participants and how each one orients to what was previously said on a moment-by-moment basis allows the CA researcher to show how talk is orderly and constructed through turns.

The orderliness of talk constructed on a moment-by-moment basis is at the heart of CA. Two of the founders of CA, Emmanuel Schegloff and Harvey Sacks, describe the orderliness of talk and how it is central to understanding CA:

If the materials...were orderly, they were so because they had been methodically produced by members of society for one another, and it was a feature of the conversations we treated as data that they were produced so as to allow the display by the co-participants to each other of their orderliness, and to allow the participants to display to one another their analysis, appreciation, and use of that orderliness (Schegloff and Sacks 1973: 290 cited in Hutchby & Wooffitt 2008: 13).

It is exactly this focus on orderliness in the talk that allows the CA researcher to describe how two or more co-participants proceed in their turns based on the prior utterance. For the current project, focusing on classroom language acquisition, CA thus becomes highly relevant.

Specifically, in the language classroom, where students are speaking with each other in the target

language, the focus on their spates of talk underscores the relevance of CA in better understanding how they use the target language with one another.

Another important detail of CA is that the research focuses on naturally occurring data recorded between two or more co-participants. When the researcher analyzes the audio or video recording of the talk as well as the accompanying transcription of the talk, he or she does so from an objective standpoint without any a priori theories in mind. As was earlier stated, CA focuses on the interaction from the participants' perspectives based on how the co-participants display their understanding of a prior turn. Hutchby and Wooffitt (2008) also address this issue:

That understanding may turn out to be what the prior speaker intended, or it may not; whichever is the case, that itself is something which gets displayed in the next turn in the sequence. We describe this as a *next-turn proof procedure*, and it is the most basic tool used in CA to ensure that analyses explicate the orderly properties of talk as oriented to accomplishments of participants, rather than being based on the assumptions of the analyst (Hutchby & Wooffitt 2008: 13).

Understanding the emic perspective of CA is fundamental to understanding how analyses of talk are approached in the field. The focus on what is said by the participants themselves allows CA researchers to explain how actions are accomplished by the co-participants on a moment-by-moment basis.

2.2 Sequence Organization in CA

Within the framework of CA, one studies the talk-in-interaction from the perspective of turns taken by each co-participant as the current spate of talk progresses. Most people do not stop to consider the organization of their daily talk between them and their fellow co-participants.

However, Schegloff (1986) highlights the fact that this sequential organization of talk between people is important to study since this talk is the vehicle through which organized institutions of society accomplish their actions. Schegloff (2007) describes that through their talk, participants accomplish various actions, such as offers. In the example below, taken from Mondada (2009b: 569), the father Yannik, the mother Valérie, the children Yves, Pierre and Monique, and Yve's girlfriend Anne are sitting at the dinner table. (All transcription glosses are Mondada's.)

Figure 2.1

(10) (mi 26.37 / mi 1469)

- 17 Val: qui c'est qui veut de l'eau pendant qu' j'ai
 who wants some water while I have
- 18 la bout[eille
 the bot[tle
 [
- 19 Yan: [du fromage je veux moi=
 [cheese I want as far as I'm concerned
- 20 Ann: =ben moi j'veux bien
 well I'm happy to take some

In lines 17-18 Valérie is “doing an offer” in which she offers water to anyone who would like to drink some. The fact that Ann treats Valérie's utterance as an offer by saying that she would like some water demonstrates that she has oriented to the prior talk as an offer for more drink and produces an appropriate turn in the next turn.

The above example underscores quite well the idea that naturally occurring talk is a highly organized system in which certain activities, like that of an offer, are accomplished as Schegloff (2007) points out. The foundation of this organization comes from the fact that each co-participant involved in the current talk constantly monitors what is said in a prior turn before responding to the talk in an appropriate manner. Specifically, Schegloff (2007: 3) says that sequences of talk can “be tracked for where they came from, what is being done through them,

and where they might be going” as they occur between the co-participants engaged in the current talk. The fact that co-participants do indeed orient to what is being said and then respond appropriately, such as in the offer example above, is the foundation on which CA is built.

There are two specific terms relevant to sequences that should be addressed briefly: turn-constructional units, (TCUs) and actions, since these terms describe how sequences are structured and what exactly is accomplished within a particular sequence of talk. TCUs are described by Schegloff *et al.* (1974) as the basis for the construction of turns since co-participants utter things like sentences, clauses, phrases and lexical items that represent the major forms of the TCU. For phrases and lexical items to be considered a TCU, the utterance must be syntactically, prosodically, and pragmatically complete. After the production of a TCU, speakership may change and this place is known as the transition- relevance space (Schegloff *et al.* 1974). Schegloff (2007) additionally describes the TCU as being grounded in the phonetic realization of the talk, for example with intonation, since the ways that utterances are produced helps the fellow co-participant(s) anticipate when a current turn is nearing completion. Participants have been shown to be able to project the ends of TCUs based on both intonation, syntax, and also context.

A specific example below helps to illustrate the above characteristics of a TCU. In this example, taken from my own data, CB and EL, are talking about when they will return the graded exams to their students:

Figure 2.2

13 EL : Uh huh quand est-ce que tu vas rendre
 Uh huh when is this that you go to return to
 Uh huh. When are you going to pass back

14 les tests?
 the tests
 the tests?

15 (1.4)

16 CB : Les tests ?
 The (Def. art) tests?
 The tests?

17 (.)

18 [Uh vendredi je pense
 [Uh Friday I think
 [Uh Friday I think.
 [

19 EL : [()

In this example EL produces her turn at lines 13-14 by asking CB when he is planning on returning the graded exams to his students. Her TCU is thus completed at line 14 followed by a pause of 1.4 seconds. Note here that her TCU is not just a random string of lexical items, but is a question asking for information from her co-participant. The pause at line 15, a transition-relevance space, shows that EL has completed her turn and is waiting for CB to continue with the next turn. Furthermore, her asking a question allocates the next turn to CB, who then responds to her question starting at line 16. He does so with two TCUs which are separated by a pause. His first TCU consists of a phrase which is a partial repeat of EL's turn. His second TCU in line 18 answers EL's question. Had *vendredi* been uttered with falling intonation, then CB's turn in line 18 would have consisted of two TCUs.

The other component of the sequence – the action – is what is being accomplished in the current sequence of talk. The specific action that is being done in a particular sequence of talk is determined from a piece of data and its surrounding context that is taken from naturally

occurring talk. In keeping with the emic perspective, Schegloff (2007) states that it is important for the analyst to start by looking at the particular data, and to not impose a type of action on the data without first reading it based on how the fellow co-participants orient to what was said and how the talk was uttered.

There is another important aspect of sequence organization to consider for the current study, namely that longitudinal research on the local organization of sequences between co-participants has shown that certain practices of talk can be learned or altered over time. Specifically, longitudinal work on local sequence organization by Nguyen (2008) showed that a pharmacy intern was able to achieve an overall increased interactional competence when interacting with her clients. For example, Nguyen (2008) showed that the pharmacy intern became more efficient at using interactional resources to structure actions, learning to order actions, and at transitioning between actions with patients. Initial examples of conversational interactions between the intern and her patients compared with later ones showed that the intern had learned from her interactions how to be more efficient in her dealings with patients. This is an important notion to consider if language teachers must think about how students acting as conversational participants in the classroom are continually learning how to speak more efficiently in the target language.

2.3 Adjacency Pairs in Conversational Sequences

Before one can fully understand and subsequently analyze any sequence of talk in a particular situation, it is imperative to know how sequences are constructed on a turn-by-turn basis. Sequences are composed of what is known as adjacency pairs. According to Schegloff and Sacks (1973: 295-96), the adjacency pair is composed of two turns by different speakers with

each turn being adjacently placed one after the other. Additionally, Schegloff and Sacks (1973) state that the two turns making up the adjacency pair are relatively ordered and distinguished by a first pair part (FPP) and a second pair part (SPP). Schegloff and Sacks (1973) further explain that FPPs are utterances that initiate some type of exchange such as questions, requests, offers, and announcements. SPPs are then those types of utterances which respond to the action of a prior turn such as answer, grant, reject, accept, decline, agree/disagree, and acknowledge. Furthermore, according to Schegloff and Sacks (1973), adjacency pairs are pair-type related, which means the FPP and SPP come from the same pair type. Specifically, examples of types include exchanges such as greeting-greeting (“Hello” – “Hello”), question-answer (“Do you know what time it is?” – “Four o’clock”), and offer-accept/decline (“Would you like a cup of coffee?” – “No, thanks”). Given this structure, the basic rule of operation is such that one co-participant should stop upon production of a recognizably produced FPP in order to allow the next co-participant to produce a SPP of the same pair type e. At the same time, a production of a FPP makes the production of a SPP conditionally relevant, that is, when it is not forthcoming it can be noticed as being “relevantly absent” (e.g., FPP speakers will pursue answers, reprimand the co-participant for now answering, draw inferences, etc.) (Schegloff 2007).

Concerning the types of adjacency pairs that can be found within sequences, there are several different issues that affect adjacency pairs . Before discussing these issues, it is important to emphasize that the central tenet of the adjacency pair within any sequence of talk is that each part of the pair comes successively, one turn coming after the one that precedes it. The fact that co-participants are able to produce an utterance that is related to the immediate prior turn of talk again underscores the organized and logical manner of talk, with each co-participant talking one turn at a time, or “turn allocation,” as Schegloff (2007) says.

2.3.1 General Overview of Preference Organization and Adjacency Pair Construction

Finally, three major aspects dealing with adjacency pair construction will be briefly discussed here: preference organization, the counter, and rules of relevance. They will be discussed in greater detail in the pertinent chapters of the dissertation.

The first aspect, preference organization, is the one dealing with the fact that within some adjacency pairs, there are alternative SPPs for their respective FPPs. That is, there are certain SPPs that are preferred or “default” in response to a given FPP, while other SPPs can be an alternate or dispreferred in response to a FPP. The term “preferred” does not refer to a psychological construct (i.e. what one wants to hear) but instead refers to the way in which it is produced. Preferred turns are produced immediately and without delay, while dispreferred turns are produced with hesitations, delays and hedges (Schegloff 2007). Which type of response is preferred can vary according to culture.

Schegloff (2007) gives the examples of a FPP including someone making an offer, invitation, or request with the preferred SPP including the recipient accepting or granting it (at least in English). In the data below, taken from the *Corpus de Langues Parlées en Interaction* (CLAPI; <http://clapi.univ-lyon2.fr>) at the University of Lyon 2, there is an example of a preferred response taken from an opening of a telephone call between a customer and an employee at a French business:

Figure 2.3

01 **AS** : cabinet chaumont-tapi[ssier] bonj[our]
Office Chaumont-Tapsi[ssier] Hel[lo]
 [] []
 02 **Ap9**: [oui] [bon]jour est-
 [yes] [Hello] is-
 03 ce que j` pourrais parler à nicole raveau s'il vous plaît
it that I could to speak to Nicole Raveau if it you please
 could I speak to Nicole Raveau please
 04 **AS** : bien sûr mad[ame qui -]
Of course mr [s. who -
Of course Mr[s who
 []
 05 **Ap9**: [mada]me véritan
 [mrs véritan]
 06 **AS** : oui ne quittez pas madame
Yes neg. leave neg. mrs.
 Yes hang on ma'am
 07 **Ap9**: merci
Thank you

In the above example, the customer Ap9 is calling and makes the request to speak with Nicole Raveau (*est-ce que j'pourrais parler à Nicole Raveau*) in lines 2-3. In line 4, the employee AS grants the caller's request (*bien sûr madame*) followed by the employee telling the caller to wait on the line. This response is produced without delay or hesitations. That is, in this example, the employee answering the phone is producing a SPP that is aligning with the caller's FPP (i.e. a request) in a preferred way (Pomerantz 1984).

Conversely, Schegloff (2007) points out that the alternate or dispreferred SPP to the corresponding FPP is when the recipient declines the invitation, the offer, or rejects the request. Pomerantz (1984) points out when a co-participant produces a FPP such as a request or offer and the recipient is going to produce a dispreferred SPP such as a rejection, the recipient may produce delays, requests for clarification, or partial repeats that will accompany the dispreferred

SPP. The example below, taken from Schegloff (2007: 65), illustrates how a dispreferred response is constructed in the talk.

Figure 2.4

(5.07) TG, 18:12-16

```

1 Ava: F -> [Maybe if yih come down I'll take the car (down).
2 Bee: S -> t! We:ll, udh-yihknow I-I don' wanna make any- thing
3         -> definite because I-yihknow I jis:: I jis::t thinkin:g
4         -> tihday all day riding on th'trains hhuh-uh ·hh[h

```

In this example, Ava is making the invitation for B to come and visit her in line 1. Bee responds to Ava's invitation with a series of hesitations and repeats (I jis:: I jis::t) in line 3 that shows how she is hedging on accepting the invitation. These are in contrast with the quick and straightforward response to the caller's request in the above example.

Another aspect of preferred and dispreferred responses is the pre-sequence that often precedes actual invitations or offers. Schegloff (2007) describes the pre-sequences for such actions as pre-invitations and pre-offers. In English, a pre-invitation for instance frequently consists of a question about the availability or the plans of the co-participant for a specific day (Schegloff 1980). If these FPP receive a preferred response, then the action goes ahead and the offer or invitation is thus made. The pre-sequence, then, can be seen as a way to avoid a dispreferred response such as a rejection of an offer or invitation. In the example of a pre-invitation below, taken from Schegloff (2007: 84), Betsy and Alice are talking about a staffing issue at work:

Figure 2.5

(5.38) SBL 1, 1, 1

1 Bet: And uh because I'm s'pposed to be hostess Sunday,
 2 Ali: Oh uh didju want relief on that.
 3 Bet: Well I don't know, there's nobody else down with me,
 4 I spoke to uhm
 5 Ali: Well, I'll- I can help you,
 6 Bet: Uh well, I probably it's only between twelve and twelve
 7 thir[ty,
 8 Ali: [Yes, so that's r- I can help at that time,
 9 Bet: Uh because uhm I think what's her name ? uhm (0.4)
 10 Ali: Oh

In the above example, Alice produces a pre-offer at line 2 when she asks Betsy if she would like some help at work. Betsy seems to give some indication that she would appreciate some type of help since nobody else is scheduled to work. As a result, Alice goes ahead and makes the offer to help Betsy at line 5. In lines 6 and 7, Betsy gives a dispreferred response to the offer with her delays and mitigating the offer being made. Despite the rejection of the offer, Alice again offers to help at line 8, but again Betty is producing another dispreferred response in line 9 with the hesitations and allusion to someone else who might be able to help.

The second aspect of adjacency pairs to consider is the counter, which is when one co-participant, just having produced a FPP, would normally expect the other co-participant to produce a relative SPP. However, the counter occurs when the FPP is redirected back to the co-participant who just did it. For example, according to Schegloff (2007: 17), after seeing a movie someone could ask “How did you like it?” expecting to get a response about the movie, but the other person could respond instead with “How about *you*?” which thus reverses the direction of the sequence. The third aspect to be considered is the one about rules of relevance since a specific FPP puts the constraint on the next speaker to produce a relevant SPP to the just uttered FPP. This is an important aspect to consider since most co-participants will orient to the just produced FPP and proffer a relevant SPP. There can be, however, an absence of a relevant SPP

such as with silence after a question or with counters that direct the FPP back to the prior co-participant. The issue of relevant SPPs will be expanded upon in more detail within the methodology chapter of the dissertation since the analysis will focus on production of relevant SPPs in learners of L2 French.

I will now describe the different ways that adjacency pairs are found within segments of naturally occurring talk. The first one to consider is the minimal, two-turn adjacency pair sequence. An example of the minimal, two-turn adjacency pair can be found in greetings, such as in the example below, which is of a telephone call opening between French native speakers CB and EL taken from my own corpus:

Figure 2.6

```

1          ((telephone rings twice))
2 CB   :   salut ( )?
           ello ( )?

3 EL   :   salut tch he he Je n'te derange pas?
           hello tch he he I not you bother?
           hello tch he he I'm not bugging you?

4          (.)

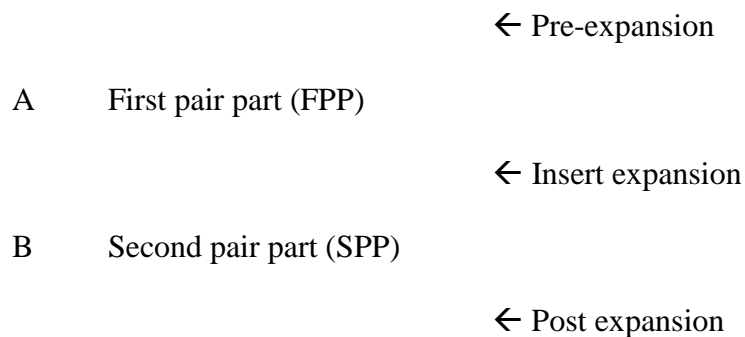
5 CL   :   alors, quoi de neuf?
           so what of new?
           so what's up?
```

In this example, the Salut ? / ‘Hello?’ at line 2 is a response (i.e., the SPP) to the summons of the phone ringing (i.e., the FPP). After this, the “Salut tch he he je ne te derange pas?” (*Hi, tch he he I’m not bugging you?*) in line 3 is another FPP that is the greeting. In line 5, the “Alors, quoi de neuf? (*So, what’s up?*)” is the SPP that responds to the greeting from the previous line showing that CB is not bothered by EL calling him.

Now that this base minimal adjacency pair has been explained, it is possible to further explicate how adjacency pairs can be expanded into larger sequences by inserting other turns/adjacency pairs into the structure. In other words, the co-participants can use their turns

during the talk to alter the minimal two part structure either before the FPP, after the FPP, or after the SPP. Specifically, an expansion before the FPP, is called a pre-expansion; an expansion between the FPP and projected SPP is called the insert expansion; and finally an expansion after the SPP is called a post-expansion. Schegloff (2007: 26) gives the following diagram of what the expansions would look like in a transcript of conversation:

Figure 2.7



It is important to remember that each of these different types of expansion come about not by the analysis imposed by the CA analyst, but rather through the co-participants themselves as they continuously progress in their talk through a series of turns on a moment-by-moment basis in order to negotiate meaning on a particular topic. Additionally, the co-participants themselves are the ones that determine how they will construct a specific turn of talk to get their ideas across, and it is in orienting to a FPP that a relevant SPP will be constructed. The realm of interaction between co-participants is very organic in that it is constantly adapting and changing to fit the needs of the parties involved in a current sequence of talk, and as such, one will see different forms of the adjacency pair model above depending on how the co-participants structure their talk in a given situation. Different expansion types within adjacency pairs will now be discussed. With regard to post-expansion, the examples will be in English since work has not yet been done on them in French.

2.4 Pre-expansion in Adjacency Pairs

Based on the above model, the first possible type of expansion within an adjacency pair is the pre-expansion. As was earlier noted, the pre-expansion comes before the first pair part. Examples of a pre-expansion can include pre-invitations, pre-offers, pre-announcements and other pre-tellings, and the pre-sequence such as the summons-answer sequence that was seen in the above phone call example. Since the major focus of the current project will not be on pre-expansion, only one relevant example will be provided and briefly analyzed. The relevant example for the pre-expansion, then, is a pre-invitation taken from Schegloff (2007: 30):

Figure 2.8

(4.01) JG 3.1 (Nelson is the caller; Clara is called to the phone)

- 1 Cla: Hello
- 2 Nel: Hi.
- 3 Cla: Hi.
- ⇒ 4 Nel: Whatcha doin'.
- 5 Cla: Not much.
- 6 Nel: Y'wanna drink?
- 7 Cla: Yeah.
- 8 Nel: Okay

In this example of the pre-invitation, Nelson's "Whatcha doin'." at line 4 is the FPP of a pre-invitation since he is asking about Clara's plans. Her response in line 5 is the SPP of the pre-invitation signaling her not having any plans, which is seen as the permission for Nelson to proceed with his invitation. Once Nelson has received the permission for the invitation, he then produces the FPP of the invitation for Clara to drink with him in line 6. Clara then produces the SPP for the invitation by agreeing to drink with him in line 7. In this particular example, it is clear that the co-participant Nelson is first asking about his fellow co-participant's plans before deciding whether or not to extend an invitation to her drink with him. Upon hearing that Clara is not doing anything, Nelson orients to this preferred response as an encouragement to invite her to drink with him. The fact that Nelson initiates this pre-invitation sequence relates back to what

was mentioned above about pre-sequences for offers and invitations being done in order to avoid dispreferred turns.

The fact that Nelson is able to orient to Clara's SPP as understanding that she is available to hang out with him is made readily apparent when contrasted with the following example, in which one co-participant's pre-invitation sequence receives a dispreferred response, thus blocking his invitation sequence. Specifically, in the example below from Schegloff (2007: 30-31), John, a student with Judy, is calling to see what Judy and her husband John are doing:

Figure 2.9

(4.02) SB, 1 (Allen/Judy are married; John is Judy's fellow student)

1	ring
2 All:	Hello?
3 Joh:	Yeah, is Judy there?
4 All:	Yeah, just a second.
5	((silence))
6 Jud:	Hello,
7 Joh:	Judy?
8 Jud:	Yeah,
9 Joh:	John Smith
10 Jud:	Hi John
11 John:	Ha ya doin-<say what 'r you doing.
12 Jud:	Well, we're going out.

In the above example, John calls Judy and wants to know what she is doing in line 11. This is an example of a pre-invitation since John wants to know what Judy is doing before he specifically invites her to do something. In line 12 Judy responds to the pre-invitation FPP with a dispreferred SPP in line 12 to the pre-invitation FPP in line 11 since she says that she and her husband are going out. Her response is dispreferred due to the hedging with "well" in line 12. Her response in line 12 effectively puts a block on the invitation that John would normally offer to her if she had been available like in the above example with Clara and Nelson. Additionally, this is proof of what was earlier said about co-participants constantly structuring sequences of talk according to the current context and the current topic of conversation. Co-participants will

thus structure their talk in such a way so as to be relevant and efficient with their turns as they orient to what was said when producing the next relevant turn.

2.5 Insert Expansion in Adjacency Pairs

The next type of expansion for consideration is the insert expansion. This particular type of expansion is one that happens between the FPP and the SPP of the adjacency pair.

Additionally, Schegloff (2007) mentions another important component of the insert expansion, which is that the insert expansion must be initiated by the recipient of the preceding FPP (i.e., intervening talk by a third party is not an insert expansion). Examples of insert expansions include post-first insert expansions, pre-second insert expansions, and expansions of expansions. However, like with pre-expansions, only one example will be given and analyzed to give the reader a general idea of what an insert expansion looks like since the main focus of the current research project is focusing on post-expansions within the third position.

The following example of an insert expansion is taken from Schegloff et al. (1977: 368 reprinted in Schegloff 2007: 97):

Figure 2.10

(6.01) SBL 2, 1, 8 (Schegloff et al., 1977: 368)

	1 Bet:	Was last night the first night you met Missiz Kelly?
	2	(1.0)
→	3 Mar:	Met whom?
	4 Bet:	Missiz Kelly.
	5 Mar:	Yes.

In this particular example, Bet produces the FPP of the adjacency pair in line 1 when she asks Mar if she met “Missiz Kelly.” The recipient, Mar, initiates the FPP of the insert expansion by putting the prior talk about meeting “Missiz Kelly” on hold. This comes before the SPP of the initial adjacency pair. In other words, Mar is asking for clarification on who she supposedly met

which puts the prior talk on hold, which occurs in line 3. This type of clarification is called repair and will be discussed in a later section on types of repair found within naturally occurring talk. In line 4 Bet produces the SPP of the insert expansion by repeating “Missiz Kelly.” in order to clarify who she was asking about in line 1. This is thus the close of the insert expansion. Mar, in line 5, produces the SPP of the initial sequence (“Yes”) by confirming that she did meet “Missiz Kelly.”

2.6 Post-expansion with Adjacency Pairs

Another type of expansion that occurs within adjacency pairs is the post-expansion which happens after the SPP of the adjacency pair. More detail will be given to discussing different examples of post-expansion in chapter 4 where I will provide a contrasting analysis of post expansions between English and French. However, some initial observations are in order. An important first element of post-expansions is noted by Schegloff and Sacks (1973) who highlight the fact that sequences, like turns in conversation or any other structured unit, have recognizable forms of closure. This is important to note because the ways in which a FPP is uttered will normally make the co-participant producing the SPP orient to what was just uttered and then produce the relevant SPP. Given this important element of adjacency pairs, it is important to note that there are different ways of closing a sequence depending on how the co-participants produce the relevant SPP to the corresponding FPP. When a preferred response in the SPP is given to a FPP, such as an acceptance of an invitation, this normally closes the sequence. However, in a dispreferred SPP to a FPP, such as rejecting an offer, this will typically lead to the expansion of the sequence. The major types of post-expansion that will be considered, then, are sequence

closing thirds (“oh,” “okay,” and assessments), other-initiated repair, and rejecting/challenging/disagreeing with the SPP.

2.7 Sequence Closing Thirds

Sequence-closing thirds are a type of minimal post-expansion which Schegloff (2007) says involves the addition of one additional turn to a sequence after its SPP. This additional turn is meant to be a slight expansion of the SPP in order to move towards closing the sequence, and it can be aligned with or not by the co-participants within the current talk. They can also be found after both preferred and dispreferred SPPs. This is precisely the type of turn that the analytic chapter of the dissertation will focus on. For this reason, more deeper and detailed analyses will be provided in chapter 4 for French native speaker data and in chapter 5 for American learners of French. The three most common sequence-closing thirds that will be examined are “oh,” “okay,” and assessments. The following (constructed) example will serve to illustrate a sequence closing third:

Figure 2.11

- 1 A: Do you wanna go to a movie?
- 2 B: Sure
- 3 A: Great! What time?

In this particular example, the “Great” in line 3 is a sequence-closing third and thus expands the prior sequence of invitation (line 1) and acceptance of the invitation (line 2).

2.8 Overview of Repair within Talk

When co-participants are involved in ongoing talk, there are times when a “trouble source” appears causing difficulties for the co-participants to further engage in the current talk, as described by Schegloff, Jefferson, and Sacks (1977). Situations in which a trouble source may arise include problems in speaking, hearing, or understanding the talk. With regard to misunderstanding the talk, Schegloff (1987) has grouped misunderstandings into two categories: 1) problematic references which may not be entirely clear to a fellow co-participant, and 2) problematic sequential implicativeness including the serious/nonserious distinction in talk, favored action interpretations, the constructive/composite distinction in understanding, and the practice of joke first. Schegloff (1992) states that a major factor contributing to repair in talk is the notion of intersubjectivity, since co-participants are continually using their common knowledge of the world around them to negotiate meaning and achieve an action through the talk. A trouble source in the talk impedes them from accomplishing an action. Repair, then, is a way for the talk to overcome the trouble source and return to accomplishing an action. Once a particular trouble source is encountered within the talk, the current action is put on hold as repair is initiated by the co-participants to overcome the trouble source. Participants continue with the prior action once the trouble has been resolved. Schegloff *et al.* (1977) make an important distinction between the actual trouble source within the talk, and the act of repairing the talk; the former is the actual problem impeding the talk from proceeding, while the latter is the action performed to overcome the trouble source.

Schegloff *et al.* (1977) distinguish four types of repair based on who initiates and who completes it: self-initiated self-repair, other-initiated self-repair, self-initiated other-repair, and other-initiated other-repair. In relation to these four types of repair, Schegloff (1988) has also

stated that the repair is initiated to fix the corresponding trouble source. This also holds true across other languages. For example, work done by Maheux-Pelletier and Golato (2008, 2003) showed that repair in French can be initiated in the same positions as in English and German. Each of these four types of repair sequences will be explained in more detail below.

2.8.1 Self-Initiated Self-Repair within Talk

The first possible type of repair sequence within talk is the self-initiated self-repair of a trouble source. In this type of repair, repair is both initiated and carried out by the co-participant who produced the trouble source. The example below, taken from my own corpus, is from a telephone call between EL and CB, both of whom are native speakers of French. In this example, CB is engaging in a word search, which is an example of self-initiated self-repair:

Figure 2.12

070 CB : uh d'éloquence de de de de: ↑ rôles quoi
 uh of eloquence of of of of: ↑ roles what
 uh of eloquence of of of of: ↑ roles you know

In this example, CB and EL have been talking about role-playing games. Prior to line 70, EL was telling CB how her active imagination lets her easily play the different roles in the game. CB had been agreeing with EL by saying an active imagination was fundamental to the success of the game. In line 70, CB is trying to complete his thought on how an active imagination leads a person to play these roles in an eloquent manner. In this line, CB puts the current talk on hold and engages in a word search for the word “rôles” (roles). CB repeats the preposition “de” (of) four different times with a final elongation of the last “de” until he finally produces the lexical item for which he has been searching. Since CB is able to repair his own trouble source, this is an example of self-initiated self-repair.

2.8.2 Other-Initiated Self-Repair within Talk

The second type of possible repair sequence that can be found within talk is the other-initiated self-repair. Within this particular repair sequence, the repair is carried out by the speaker who produced the trouble source, but the repair is initiated by the co-participant to whom the talk was addressed. In the example below, taken from Schegloff et al. (1977: 364), Ken, Dan, and Roger are talking about whether or not Al is present:

Figure 2.13

(12) [GTS:5:3]

1 Ken:	Is Al here today?
2 Dan:	Yeah.
3	(2.0)
4 Roger:	He <u>is</u> ? Hh eh heh
5 Dan:	Well he was.

In the above example, Ken has inquired whether or not Al is present in line 1. When Dan responds affirmatively with “Yeah” in line 2, this becomes a trouble source of understanding for Roger. In line 4, Roger initiates repair seeking clarification on whether or not Al is really there at that moment with rising intonation and stress on “is” followed by laughter showing he is not sure if Al is there despite Dan’s affirmation that Al is. Dan then self-repairs in line 5 by re-phrasing his talk to say that Al was there earlier.

2.8.3 Self-Initiated Other-Repair within Talk

The third possible type of repair sequence within talk is the self-initiated other-repair sequence. Within this particular sequence of repair, the speaker producing the trouble source may try and get the co-participant to whom the talk is addressed to repair the trouble, such as if a name or other word is proving to be difficult to remember. In the example below, taken from my

own data, CB and EL are discussing the novel *The Silence of the Lambs*, and CB is trying to figure out the name of the actor who plays the character Hannibal Lector:

Figure 2.14

```

131 CB :      personnage de hannibal lector en: (0.4) dans le
               character of hannibal lector in: (0.4) in the
               character of Hannibal Lector in: (0.4) in the

132           roman est-ce que est-ce que je peux
               novel is this that is this that i can
               novel. Can I can I

133           me dépêcher de du visage de
               myself hurry of of the face of
               correctly identify the face of of of

134           (.)

135 EL :      >d'An [thony Hopkins<
               >of An[thony Hopkins<
               >of An[thony Hopkins<

136 CB :      [d'An thony Hopkins je ne sais pas quoi ( )
               [of Anthony Hopkins I neg. know neg.art. what ( )
               [of Anthony Hopkins I don't know ( )

137           il a joué tellement bien ce rôle
               he has played really well this role
               he played the role really well.

```

In the above example, starting at line 132 and going into line 133, CB is engaging in self-initiated repair trying to produce the correct lexical items for the name of the actor who played the character Hannibal Lector from the novel. He repeats “est-ce que” (*can*) twice in line 132 and variations of the preposition “de” (*of*) three times in line 133, showing that he is trying to recall the actor’s name. In line 135, EL quickly produces the correct lexical item “d’Anthony Hopkins” for which CB was looking. This is the example of the other recipient producing the correct item for which the fellow co-participant was looking. In line 136 CB overlaps with EL and also produces the correct token shortly after she begins to utter it, showing that he positively orients to her producing the correct lexical item.

2.8.4 Other-Initiated Other-Repair within Talk

The fourth possible type of repair sequence that can be found within talk is the sequence known as other-initiated other-repair. In this type of repair, the co-participant to whom the talk including the trouble source is addressed is the person who both initiates and carries out the repair. The co-participant producing the trouble source thus does not play a role in the repair. In the example below, taken from Maheux-Pelletier and Golato (2008: 694-95), N (a speaker of Parisian French) and O (a speaker of Quebecois French) are talking about the word for blueberry in their varieties of French after N grabs O's recipe card for a blueberry pie.

Figure 2.15

(2) [Origami: Bleuets]

- 01 N: une tarte aux bleuets?
a pie at_the blueberries?
'a blueberry pie?'
- 02 (2.0)
- 03 O: ben oui anh lac st-jean
good yes eh lake st-jean
'well yes eh st-jean lake'
- 04 N: c'est quoi du bleu: ((singing)) des bleu: des fleurs?
this_is what the blue: the blue: some flowers?
'what is it blue: blue: flowers?'
- 05 O: non: non non les bleuets? c'est: un:e baie? qui est: bleue?
no: no no the blueberries? it's a berry? that is: blue?
'no: no no blueberries? it's a berry? which is: blue?'
- 06 N: ouais
'yeah'
- 07 (.)
- 08 N: une myrtille?
'a blueberry?' ((note different lexical item from l. 05))
- 09 O: ouais
'yeah'

In the above example, the trouble source starts at line 1 for N who reads the recipe card and reads the title “-une tarte aux bluets-”/ ‘blueberry tart’ aloud with rising intonation at the end showing

some confusion about the title. O confirms that this indeed the recipe title in line 3. In line 4 N other-initiates and other-completes repair on the lexical item “bluets” by offering a possible definition for the lexical item as a type of blue flower. O subsequently rejects this other-initiated other-completed repair of the lexical item in line 5 by saying that it is in fact a berry that is blue. N then accepts her definition of the lexical item in line 6 and then offers the word in his variety of French in line 8. O then positively orients to his understanding of the word by agreeing with him in line 9.

2.9 Classroom Interaction Focusing on Teacher-Student Talk and Student-Student Talk

The discussion will now turn to the issue of interaction within the language classroom in two different situations: interaction between teacher-student and interaction between student-student. Using CA as the tool to analyze interaction within each interactional situation will show how the different co-participants orient to each other and produce the relevant turns to accomplish a particular task or activity within the language classroom. Markee (1994, 2000) and Firth and Wagner (1997, 2007) were among the first to advocate using CA to study language acquisition from an interactional perspective. More recent work such as Seedhouse (2004, 2005), Kasper (2006), and Hellermann (2008) has not only heeded the call, but has also advocated to develop language teaching practices based on naturally occurring data. Additionally, Markee and Kasper (2004) stress the importance of the emic perspective adopted by CA when analyzing language learning in the classroom.

Once a thorough understanding of teacher-student and student-student language classroom interactions has been established, if evidence is found that learners do interact differently within the two situations, appropriate pedagogical measures to highlight these

differences and meaningfully teach them could then be devised. In fact, recent research (Markee 2000; Markee & Kasper 2004; Markee 2005; Bowles & Seedhouse 2007; Markee 2008) has shown that these two types of interaction differ in that learners use the target language differently in each situation. Furthermore, recent work (Kasper 2004a; Markee 2004; Seedhouse 2004; Hellermann 2008) has shown that teacher-student talk generally sets up the framework in which one participant is seen as the language expert to provide knowledge to the other participant who is learning. Finally, recent work (Mondada & Pekarek Doehler 2004; Mori 2004; Hellermann 2007, 2008; Hellermann & Cole 2008; Markee 2008) discusses how peer-to-peer talk is organized such that the learners converse together in a less formal environment and try to incorporate newly acquired linguistic knowledge into their talk.

2.9.1 Classroom Language Focusing on Teacher-Student Talk

Within the language classroom, one of the primary points to first understand about interaction is the roles that each co-participant plays within the given talk. Seedhouse (2004) reports that the central tenet to understanding the interactional architecture of the language classroom, and by extension the roles of each participant, is to know the main institutional goal, which for the language classroom is that the teacher will teach and the students will learn. Kasper (2004) discusses the possible roles for each co-participant based on the membership category that each co-participant will orient towards during the interaction. As an example of orienting towards roles during the interaction, Hellermann (2008) reports on how students orient to possible classroom roles by dividing their attention between participation roles and members of the classroom community (i.e. peers and the teacher). In order to successfully raise students'

attention to such classroom roles, Bowles & Seedhouse (2007) discuss the use of consciousness-raising activities based on how talk proceeds in interaction.

In the realm of the language classroom, then, one co-participant will most likely be an advanced speaker or native speaker (NS) of the target language and the other co-participant(s) will be the non-native speaker(s) (NNS) (Kasper 2004a; Markee 2004). Kasper's (2004a) analysis of the interaction between German NS instructors and NNS students was taken from *Gesprächsrunde*, or round of talks for a German 101 class at Outrigger University. For these interactions, students met individually or in pairs with their respective instructor three times a semester to discuss whatever they wanted. Kasper (2004a: 557) notes that during the teacher-student interactions, it is the NS instructor that orients to the role of "interaction manager" who handles the majority of the talk organization such initiating new sequences of talk, asking questions, confirming the answers given by the student, elaborating on topics, and keeping the interaction going. Specific to the role of NS instructor, Kasper (2004a) explains that the instructor orients to activities that encourage the NNS learner to talk and create an environment that will allow for the production of learner talk. Concerning the role of NNS learner, Kasper (2004a) explains that when the learner encounters difficulties in producing target items, such as producing a question in German asking about the instructor's weekend, the student orients to the teacher as a fluent bilingual speaker and asks the question in English so that the teacher can thus translate it into German for the student. This is seen below in an excerpt from the conversation between the student (C) and the teacher (D), from Kasper (2004a: 555):

Figure 2.16

019 C: =ja gut gut °very interest-° um war- um woch-
 =yeah good good was week-
020 wochenende um °how was your weekend°
 weekend

Figure 2.16 (cont'd)

021 D: wie war dein wochenende?_
how was your weekend?_

022 C: =wie war dein [°wochenende°]
=how was your [°weekend°]
[]

023 D: [ich war auch] im kino
[I was at the cinema too]

024 C: oh: ja [°(film)°]
[]

025 D: [ehm] my big fat greek wedding

026 C: OH:::

027 D: der war sehr lustig_
it was very funny_

the NS and NNS are able to work together to accomplish the goals of the institutional talk, that of getting the student to ask and respond to questions in the target language.

Two additional components of the teacher-student interaction to consider are the structure of the interactions, and the control of the turn-taking system. As seen in the example above, the interaction in teacher-student can be characterized as a typical three part structure consisting of the teacher asking a question, the student answering the question, followed by the teacher's evaluation of the student's answer. This structure is used in pedagogical interactions in which teachers focus on form and accuracy with their students (Seedhouse 2004). Another component of the teacher-student interaction to consider is the control of the turn-taking system, or "interactional rights" (Seedhouse 2004: 104). The teacher, seen as the expert and leader in the classroom, is in "total control of who says what and when" (Seedhouse 2004: 104-05). On this front, recent work by Wong & Waring (2010) provides insights on how teachers can use their expert knowledge to teach the turn-taking system to their students in order to facilitate interaction in the target language. Additionally, these types of asymmetries are common to the overall organization of institutional talk as described by Heritage (1997).

However, it is important to mention that not all NS-NNS interactions will take the same structure as the teacher-student dyad described in the above example. This is because the example from Kasper (2004a) is an example of institutional talk. In institutional talk interactions, such as in a classroom or a doctor's office, there are specific goals to be accomplished through the talk that make them different from everyday talk, for example, between friends. Heritage (1997) describes the structure of institutional talk with regard to turn-taking organization, overall structural organization of the interaction, sequence organization, lexical choice, and the asymmetries of knowledge and interaction between the co-participants, which differ from the

organization of everyday talk, as seen in sections 2.3 to 2.9 of this chapter. In order to better understand the different types of interaction, work by Seedhouse and Richards (2007) has proposed a tri-dimensional model of context consisting of 1) the micro context, which focuses on the interaction as a singular occurrence with an emphasis on its uniqueness when compared with other instances of institutional interaction; 2) the sub-variety context, focusing on the interaction having its own institutional aim and appropriate interactional organization; and 3) the institutional context, which looks at interaction as institutional discourse containing overt institutional characteristics.

Research dealing with NS-NNS interactions outside of institutional talk has shown that there are unique practices for each type of interaction. Specifically, within the non-institutional NS-NNS interactions, Kidwell (2000) describes interactions between English NS speakers working at a front desk at a university-sponsored English program and NNS approaching the desk with requests. The study found that in the interactions, the NS and NNS participants were able to use their shared institutional knowledge of how a front desk works in order to successfully accomplish different service activities despite the lack of linguistic knowledge on the part of the NNS. Additionally, Hosoda (2000) found that in ordinary talk interactions between NS-NNS in Japanese, the Japanese NS did not initiate repair on NNS talk like teachers would be expected to do in an institutional setting. Interactional practices, then, do depend on the type of setting in which the co-participants find themselves at the time of a particular interaction.

2.9.2 Classroom Language Focusing on Student-Student Talk

With regard to the types of classroom activities that optimally promote student-student interactions, task-based activities that collaboratively engage students to complete an activity are

seen as effective (Markee 1997; Mondada & Pekarek Doehler 2004; Mori 2004; Seedhouse 2004; Hellermann 2007, 2008), although some recent research (Seedhouse and Saad Almutairi 2009) has pointed out difficulties with analyzing the actions accomplished in task-based activities. Nunan (2004: 216) defines task-based language teaching as “an approach to language teaching organized around tasks rather than language structures.” Furthermore, Nunan (2004: 20) specifies that task-based language teaching activates learners’ emerging language skills by allowing them to “move from reproductive language models provided by the teacher, the textbook or the tape – to creative language use in which they are recombining familiar words, structures and expressions in novel ways.” Aside from the task itself, the instructional materials and objects used by language learners during the task-based activities are important for the learners, since these materials help to promote social interaction and collaboration between students using the target language as learners orient to the materials as part of the language learning process (Mondada & Pekarek Doehler 2004; Markee 2008).

During the execution of the task-based activities in the classroom, there is a network of interactional student-student dyads that occurs. Hellermann (2008) points out that within the language classroom there is a community of practice consisting of each student-student dyad, but these dyads overlap and belong to a much larger community of practice with the overlapping dyads allowing students to learn in a socially distributed way (Kasper 2009). On specific interactional practices within these dyads, one of the major aspects of the interaction, according to Hellermann (2007), is that students engaged in a language-producing task in the classroom will normally use the language prompts given by the teacher at the beginning of the task and then later incorporate that language appropriately into their own talk. This is important since much of what language teachers model in the classroom often serves as the first example of the target

language structure for students. Hellermann (2007) also reported that students adopt the language of their classroom peers for the development of classroom practices such as when a student needs to find an interlocutor to complete the assigned pair task. Additionally, Hellermann (2007) points out that students can negotiate a strategy with one another to ensure they understand the task and then how to complete the task. Mori (2004: 546) summarizes such practices during student-student talk by stating that “participants make visible their orientations towards differing types of learning opportunities that they show to be relevant.” When students are thus engaged in this type of peer-to-peer talk, there is the notable absence of the highly structuralized control over the turn-taking system as seen in teacher-student talk. That is, students engaged in talk for meaning and fluency, rather than for form or accuracy, will interact in a less rigid way and more like they would with their peers outside of the classroom (Seedhouse 2004).

Furthermore, the ability for students to engage in such interactional practices is what Kasper (2009) alludes to when she talks about the intersubjectivity or shared cognition of peers engaged in conversation, which allows them to constantly monitor and update their understanding of what was previously said as they proceed with their next turns of talk.

An additional aspect of student-student learning within the language classroom can be found in talk that is not related to the task, or off-task talk. Research by Markee (2005) and Hellermann & Cole (2008) focuses on how disengagement from the language-learning task while speaking with peers still constitutes language learning. Focusing on this type of student-student interaction is important since students must adapt from the traditional and structured teacher-student interaction to the student-student interaction in order to complete a task and learn from each other. Additionally, students interacting with their peers must learn how to end the task in

an “orderly and social way” according to Hellermann & Cole (2008: 189), giving rise to more practice with the language. This in turn allows the learners to more fully engage in different types of situations with the language. Specifically, Hellermann & Cole (2008) demonstrate the advantages of student-student interaction in the second language through the longitudinal study of one learner who at first does not fully participate in the language tasks assigned by the teacher due to his lack of understanding the task dynamics. This student then comes to participate more fully in the tasks thanks to fellow students who help explain the tasks to him and integrate him more into the “community of practice” (Hellermann & Cole 2008: 202) through the ongoing interaction with him in the tasks. Engaging with this community of practice through interaction is what Hellermann & Cole (2008) describe as part of the trajectory that students are on towards fuller participation within the classroom and their journey of language learning. Carroll (2000) says that insights focusing on how learners use language in non-institutional settings, which by extension can include off-task talk, can be useful for how language instructors and materials designers perceive learners and then subsequently encourage them to build up their interactional skills.

After looking at both of these speech exchange systems, student-teacher and student-student, it is quite clear that the student-student interaction is closer to ordinary conversation. The student-student interaction does not contain rigid structure in terms of who controls the turn-taking system, whereas the student-teacher speech exchange system is strict in that the teacher controls who speaks and when. Furthermore, Carroll (2000) describes how student-student interactions in the target language, even at the novice level, show characteristics of NS talk with regard to the talk’s overall organization and turn-taking structure. Given, then, that the student-student interaction is closer to ordinary conversation, and the goal of instruction is for students to

be interacting with native speakers outside of the classroom, students need to be given the opportunity in the classroom to practice such interactions.

2.10 General Definition of Pragmatics

Since the main objective of the current study is to teach the acquisition of pragmatics to language learners, a basic definition of pragmatics will be given. Generally speaking, pragmatics can be defined as “the study of the relations between language and context that are basic to an account of language understanding” (Levinson 1983: 21). An example of pragmatics in use in the French language is to know the proper context or environment in which a speaker differentiates between using the formal *vous*/ ‘you’ versus the more informal or familiar *tu*/ ‘you’ when addressing another person.

2.11 A Review of Language Textbooks and Their Approaches to Modeling Conversation

Oftentimes textbooks and their corresponding dialogues presenting vocabulary and grammar items are the primary way through which students are exposed to the target items. The major issue to consider, then, with language textbooks is whether, or to what extent, they present conversations in ways that reflect actual NS-NS interactions. Seeing how talk is constructed and negotiated by co-participants in naturally occurring situations versus the dialogues presented to students in language textbooks leaves much to be desired if students are to be taught how to speak more like native speakers. In order to better understand how conversations in textbooks compare with naturally occurring conversations, work done by Koshik (2000), Wong (2002), Huth & Taleghani-Nikazm (2006), and Huth (2007) will be discussed.

Broadly speaking, it would seem advantageous to both instructors and learners to use instructional materials that are based on how participants involved in interactions relevant to their fields of study would interact in real time situations. Using materials designed this way would presumably help prepare the learners to become more effective in their practices as future professionals in their respective fields, whether it be a doctor dealing with a patient, or someone conversing with native speakers of another language. Koshik (2000) underscores the importance of using such authentic pedagogical materials and practices in various institutions such as medicine and education. She points out that since institutional talk within such professions has clear goals and objectives to be accomplished, it would be beneficial to learners to learn how interactions between those involved, such as doctors-patients and teacher-students, naturally occur so that learners are better prepared to deal with future actions in those settings.

With regard to using authentic materials in the language classroom, Wong (2002) focuses on how naturally occurring conversations from telephone calls in English differ from 30 different conversations taken from eight different English as a Second Language (ESL) textbooks. Overall, Wong (2002) found that the ways in which conversations were presented in the ESL textbooks when compared to naturally occurring conversations in English were unsatisfactory in terms of their portrayal of summons-answer, identification, greeting, and how-are-you sequences. Examples of summons-answer, identification, greeting, and how-are-you sequences are illustrated below in an example from a telephone call opening taken from Schegloff (1986, as cited in Wong 2002: 40):

Figure 2.17

```

01 ((ring))
02 Nancy:  H' llo: ?
03 Hyla:   Hi: ,
04 Nancy:  ^Hi: .
05 Hyla:   Hwəryuhh=
06 Nancy:  =Fi:ne how'r you,
```

Figure 2.17 (cont'd)

07 Hyla: Oka: [y
 08 Nancy: [Goo:d,
 09 (0.4)
 10 Hyla: mkhhh [hhh
 11 Nancy: What's doin,

In the above example, the summons-answer sequence is in lines 1-2 with the summons in line one and Nancy answering the phone in line 2. The identification and greeting happen in lines 3-4 where Hyla identifies herself in line three and Nancy greets Hyla in line 4 with an extended “Hi” once Nancy recognizes Hyla’s voice. The first how-are-you sequence comes in line 5 with Hyla asking how Nancy is doing, and the second one comes in line 6 with Nancy responding and then asking how Hyla is doing. Once Hyla responds in the affirmative and Nancy positively assesses it, a new topic of talk begins in line 11 with Nancy asking about news in Hyla’s life.

Returning to the issue at hand, a major problem with the way that textbooks present dialogues to students is that many language textbooks claim to be presenting authentic material as it would be used by native speakers conversing with each other. However, when Wong (2002) compared the textbook conversations with telephone call openings from naturally occurring data, there were some obvious discrepancies between the two sets of conversations (textbooks and naturally occurring talk).

Specifically, with regard to summons-response sequences in textbooks, Wong (2002) found that only three out of thirty textbook conversations had complete summons-answer sequences within the talk. She found that some textbooks tended to put the summons-response sequence all in the same line while others omitted the summons-response sequence that gave readers the impression that the person responding to the phone call was actually the person who made the phone call. This is problematic since naturally occurring conversation is an orderly

event, and presenting phone calls to students that omit orderly steps could lead to potential chaos on the phone.

When it came to identifications, Wong (2002) found that textbooks presented conversations amongst friends as less familiar than should normally be. That is, in the textbook conversations, friends played the “switchboard operator” role asking for a specific friend when their own friend answered the phone. This stands in contrast to naturally occurring talk between friends when friends normally recognize each other by voice alone during normal phone calls, such as in the example above. Additionally, Wong found that textbooks did not always portray logical phone conversations since some showed people self-identifying with first name only in the first phone call followed by self-identification with first and last name in the follow-up phone call. In normal conversations, the caller would tend to self-identify with first and last name in the initial phone call followed up by identifying with the first name only in subsequent calls.

With regard to greeting sequences, Wong (2002) found that only four of the 30 textbook conversations contained greeting sequences and that two out of those four had one person not return the greeting to the other person. In other words, the SPP was not returned after the FPP was uttered. Additionally, with how-are-you sequences, only four of the 30 textbook conversations contained how-are-you sequences. Wong found this small number of how-are-you sequences to be problematic since the conversations were supposed to be occurring between friends or close acquaintances who usually ask how each other are doing.

In order to remedy these problems, Wong (2002) advocates for the use of actual naturally occurring conversations to be used in the classroom. Such an approach can be problematic for language teachers because teacher training does not typically focus on actual language use. However, recent work by Wong & Waring (2010) prepares teachers how to teach actual

language use. Huth & Taleghani-Nikazm (2006) also underscore the importance of teaching the pragmatics associated with interaction in the target language. Wong (2002) stresses that language teachers may want to supplement instructional materials with examples of naturally occurring talk from native speakers and explain the speaking roles of the co-participants in culturally-relevant situations so that students learn how to act as competent speakers in the target language. Additionally, Huth & Taleghani-Nikazm (2006) emphasize including instructional materials and activities developed from naturally occurring talk produced by native speakers. With regard to accomplish this goal, Huth (2007) provides an example of how to implement a teaching unit with materials based on naturally occurring talk in the language classroom as well as how to assess students following the unit. This seems to make good sense given the fact that students use material presented by the teacher in their own conversations with classroom peers.

2.12 Textbook Review of *Vis-à-vis (Fourth Edition)* to Illustrate Conversation Structure

Since the current study will be focusing on the sequence-closing third position of NS-NS and NNS-NNS interactions in French, it is appropriate to analyze the introductory French textbook used at the institution of the author since many students learning French for the first time are exposed to dialogues coming from this textbook. The textbook used by the introductory French classes (French 101-103) at the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign is the *Vis-à-vis (Fourth Edition)* written by Amon, Muyskens, and Omaggio Hadley and published by McGraw Hill in 2008. *Vis-à-vis*, similar to other French textbooks, presents supposedly authentic dialogues in ways that do not accurately reflect the sequence structure of naturalistic French conversations with regard to how they were described above.

Similar to what Wong (2002) described with phone openings in most textbooks, the *Vis-à-vis* textbook omits the summons-response sequence from its conversations that are supposed to be taking place on the phone. For example, on page 67 the conversation that is used to present the verb “avoir” (*to have*) presents a phone conversation in which the opening sequence (i.e., summons, answer) is missing. Specifically, one co-participant, Jasmine, says “Allô Florence? Tu as une minute?” (“*Hello Florence? Do you have a minute?*”) in the first line. The student is assumed to know, then, that Jasmine is calling Florence since Florence responds with “Salut Jasmine!” (“*Hey Jasmine!*”) in line two showing that Florence was able to recognize Jasmine from her talk in the previous line. Additionally, this is not the same structure as the opening sequence of a naturally occurring opening in a French phone conversation (see Figures 2.3 and 2.6 for examples in French) in which there is a summons, response, and greeting.

In addition to the above example, there were also conversations in which a relevant sequence-closing third that was supposed to occur did not actually appear in the textbook conversation. For example, on page 76 in a conversation introducing questions with an affirmative or negative response, a tourist is watching animated French speakers and is asking questions to a policeman. The tourist produces a question (FPP) in line one, and the policeman responds with a negative response (SPP) in line two, and then the tourist again produces another FPP question, to which the policeman again answers in the negative. The tourist then uses the expression “Alors, c’est une dispute?” (“*So, it’s a fight?*”) with his third question showing that he is orienting to a continually negative list of answers for his questions. In the final response, the policeman answers with an explanation for what is really happening (an animated discussion amongst friends at a café table). This conversation is thus just a continual question-answer structure without a relevant sequence-closing third, in which the tourist could have closed down

the talk with an “ohh ok” (or the French equivalent thereof) or some kind of assessment once the negative answer was given to his questions. This would be a relevant place for such an assessment to be introduced since it would show students how to properly end a sequence of talk.

Additionally, in several conversations (e.g., page 98, introducing more interrogative expressions; page 156, introducing partitive articles; page 182, introducing the interrogative adjective *quel*), there are instances of sequences in which a question (FPP) designed to elicit information about someone is given a relevant response (SPP), yet no follow-up in the form of a sequence-closing third in the form of an assessment or “Oh” (or the French equivalent thereof) is given. The relevant sequence-closing third is thus omitted, and this again would be a relevant place to include such linguistic expressions within the talk, since students would benefit from learning how French native speakers assess utterances produced by fellow co-participants. Given this lack of naturally occurring talk within the textbook conversations, it would be beneficial for students to receive some supplementary material on how to sound more native-like when they are speaking French, just as Wong (2002) advocated. If students were presented with additional examples of French NS talk, then they could have access to more concrete ways of helping them become more competent in the target language.

2.13 The Need for Students to Speak in a More Native-like Fashion when Interacting with Native Speakers

Perhaps the most important reason to reconsider how students learn the target language in the classroom is that when students are actually immersed in the target culture and speaking the target language, they oftentimes feel that they were not sufficiently prepared to do so based on the ways they were taught in the classroom. Knowing, then, how naturally occurring talk is

structured, it should be easy for language instructors to see that their teaching materials do not accurately reflect interaction when it is compared to naturally occurring talk. Additionally, since students do indeed orient to their teachers as the experts in the language and do use structures provided by their teachers, what problems can possibly arise for students learning from materials that may not be completely accurate? Wilkinson (2002) addresses this question when she assesses how American college students studying abroad in France and living with French host families discussed their interactions with French NS in relation to the language learning they did at their home institutions.

Specifically, Wilkinson (2002) used CA to analyze interactions between the American college students and their French native speaker hosts. One of the major items that Wilkinson reports on is that some of the American students were not able to adequately respond to questions from their French hosts, since the questions asked by the French native speakers were not similar to the types of questions asked by the teacher in the traditional language classroom. Wilkinson (2002) also reported that when students were confronted with conversational structures that they had not learned in the classroom, they could only respond using the structures that they learned in the classroom,, and these structures did not always transfer over to conversations with the French native speakers.

Additionally, Wilkinson (2002) found that students were not used to being the ones to initiate conversations with questions based on traditional classroom instruction, so her analysis of the data found lulls in conversations at times with native speakers. However, one particular example is an interaction between a French child and an American student, so this also raises the question of how prepared a child is to take on the more expert role of initiating a conversation when speaking with an older person. In order to remedy this lack of preparation on the part of

students stemming from the traditional methods and materials used to instruct students, Wilkinson (2002) says that there needs to be a change in the ways that students interact with the target language in the classroom. Specifically, Wilkinson advocates the idea of using interactions between French native speakers as a baseline for how conversation should be taught and modeled. This approach echoes the sentiments of Wong (2002) who made the call for more authentic native speaker conversational materials to be used in the classroom when teaching students how to speak more like native speakers.

Chapter 3: Study Methodology

3.1 Overview of the Methodology

For the empirical portion of this dissertation, I first recorded French native speaker data to analyze sequence closing thirds. These data were then used to create teaching materials to teach beginning learners of French how to speak more native-like with regard to sequence-closing thirds. A series of task-based activities was used to encourage student interactions, which were recorded and then analyzed to gauge the effectiveness of the teaching materials and task-based activities.

This chapter serves as an overview of the particulars of the current study mentioned above. Specifically, this chapter discusses the following: the current study's participants, the materials used in the study, procedures and tasks used in the study, why these particular data were collected, the transcription system used to analyze the data, and the actual data analysis that was done in the current study. This information is necessary to understand the analyses presented in the next chapter.

3.2 Subjects in the Current Study

The first group of subjects for the current study were French native speakers, who at the time were currently enrolled as undergraduate or graduate students at the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign. These French native speakers were from France, and used Metropolitan French as their first language at home and at school. The French native speakers filled out a language background questionnaire to confirm their use of French at home and in school prior to coming to the United States. Pairs or small groups of three from this group spoke in person or else on the telephone about daily mundane activities. Their conversational interactions were

either audio recorded if they spoke on the telephone or, video recorded if they spoke in person, and were then transcribed. I then analyzed these data using CA, with my analysis focused on third position responses. This part of the study is described in Chapter 4.

The data from these subjects were used as a native speaker base line that was used during the task phase of the study. The data from this group of subjects were collected and analyzed during the fall 2010 semester. Additionally, IRB approval was obtained prior to the beginning of the current study.

The subjects for the second part of the study were students enrolled in a second semester French course at the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign. This was an eight week course that took place during the summer of 2010. Initially, there were a total number of ten subjects (who were then divided into five pairs) who agreed to participate in the study.¹ Prior to the start of the study, IRB approval had been obtained. Additionally, all subjects had been briefed on the three phases of the study, and had given their written consent to be video recorded during each phase of the study. The age of the ten subjects ranged from 19 to 44. The average age was 24.2 years. The median age was 22. The subject who was 44 years old was an outlier as all other subjects ranged from 19 to 25 years old. The first language of all the subjects was English, although two also reported speaking Spanish and one also reported speaking Cantonese at home in addition to English.

¹ Initially, there were 10 subjects who agreed to participate in the study who were then divided into five pairs. Due to an unforeseen interference during the post-task phase, one of the pairs had to be removed from the overall analysis. However, this pair will be discussed separately from the others.

3.3 Materials for the Current Study

3.3.1 Pre-task Phase Questions

Materials for the pre-task phase of the current study included traditional pair-work questions requiring one subject to ask a question and another subject to give an appropriate follow-up answer. The materials for this part of the study included the review hand-outs for the oral midterm exam provided to students in class by the instructor. The list contained 20 questions covering different themes from previous chapters (i.e. vacation and city life, media and communication, transportation, everyday life and the arts). The hand-outs included directions requiring each subject to practice producing a FPP and relevant SPP. These pre-task questions can be found in Appendix A. Each list was divided into the four sections listed above, with each section containing five different questions related to a given topic. The questions were worded differently on each list so that each subject in the pair avoided asking and responding to the same questions as his/her partner. Each list, however, did contain the same four topics despite the questions being worded differently.

3.3.2 Task Phase Hand-out

The materials for the task phase (i.e., the teaching unit in which learners were taught how to incorporate third position responses into the conversational repertoires) were developed from the French native speaker corpus described in Chapter 4. The materials for the task phase are based on those used by Huth (2007) who carried out a similar project for beginning German learners. The instructor was provided with a lesson plan on how to present the teaching unit to the learners (see Appendix B). Each subject participating in the study was provided with a hand-out to use and complete during the teaching unit (See Appendix C). The third position responses

that I chose to include in the teaching unit are ones that occurred most frequently in the native speaker corpus. They include positive and negative assessments, understanding and confirmation checks, surprised responses, and acknowledging/accepting new information with *d'accord* / 'all right' and *ok*. The first activity of the lesson had learners think about using appropriate third responses in English. For example, it included sample contexts in English in which a question (e.g., Is that your new car?) and answer (e.g., Yeah, I bought it last week) were provided and for which subjects were asked to provide an appropriate follow-up third position response. Subjects were then asked to reflect on why these responses were appropriate. The next activity provided sample contexts for using various third position responses in French based on the native speaker data presented in the previous chapter. These third position responses included positive and negative assessments, comprehension checks, surprised responses, and the acknowledgement of new information. In other words, the goal of the lesson was to teach subjects appropriate third position responses for specific interactional functions. For each context, there were accompanying audio or video files in which French NS used the various third position responses. The instructor played each file for the subjects. These files were taken from the French NS corpus discussed in Chapter 4. Subjects were able to follow along with the transcriptions of the conversations on their hand-outs. The subjects were then asked to comment on why these third position responses were appropriate. The third activity during the teaching unit was a practice activity in which subjects were to match a third position response in French with the appropriate context.

The final activity of the teaching unit was the actual speaking task. This activity was a role-play speaking task in which two subjects were paired up. In each pair, one subject either played the role of a tourist asking for directions to a famous landmark in Paris or the role of a

local French person giving directions. The person asking the question was told to use an appropriate third position response based on the conversational models given. Subjects were instructed to switch roles after asking five questions so that each subject had a chance to ask a question and produce a third position response. Please consult Appendix (C) to see the complete hand-out.

3.3.3 Post-task Questionnaire

The materials for the post-task (i.e. the actual oral midterm exam for French 102) included the questions for the oral midterm exam, the subject language background questionnaire, and the post-task questionnaire. The questions for the oral midterm exam were also written by the Director of the French Basic Language Program and are used each semester by the French 102 sections. The exam questions were similar to the oral midterm review questions in that they cover topics previously discussed in the 102 classes (i.e., modern means of communication and vocabulary associated with city life, vacation and transportation, and everyday life and the arts). Each exam topic has six questions to be asked by one partner to another. The partners were instructed to select a topic at random so that each partner would have a different topic and then ask those questions to the other partner.²

The language background questionnaire completed by each subject in the study asked subjects to list their native language and dialect, the native language and dialect of their mother and father, the other languages that the subject knows as well as the proficiency of each

² For exam security reasons, the actual exam questions cannot be displayed. However, if the reader is interested in seeing the questions, I am willing to provide a copy of the questions.

language, the weekly use of French and the other languages, and the background information on exposure to French (for non-native French speakers). Please consult Appendix (D) at the end of the dissertation for the complete language background questionnaire.

The post-task questionnaire completed by each subject asked subjects to rate and comment on the overall effectiveness of each phase of the study. It also asked subjects to comment on their overall motivation for learning French and on their future language goals. Please consult Appendix (E) for the complete post-task questionnaire.

3.4 Procedures for the Current Study

3.4.1 Pre-task Phase

The first phase of the study, the pre-task phase, involved the subjects working in pairs to practice for their oral midterm exam. The pre-task phase occurred outside of the regularly scheduled class period. This phase of the study occurred one day before the task phase. Prior to this phase, the subjects had selected a conversational partner to work with for all three phases of the study. There were five pairs that agreed to participate in the study. On the day of the pre-task phase, each pair was given a set of 22 practice questions for the oral midterm exam that covered topics from the class. (Please see Appendix A for the practice questions that were used for the pre-task phase.) Each pair was instructed to have a conversation in which one co-participant asked one question to the other person, obtained an appropriate response, and then moved on to the next question. Pairs were also instructed to switch roles after ten questions so that each co-participant had an opportunity to practice asking a question and giving a response. Given that there were 22 questions for each pair, this means that there were 22 probable slots for co-

participants to use a third position response following the question (FPP) and the answer (SPP), and there were a total of 110 slots across all pairs. This pre-task phase was an opportunity for me to see how many of the pairs were already using third position responses in their French conversational repertoires prior to being explicitly taught how to use them.

3.4.2 Procedure for the Task Phase

The task phase occurred one day after the pre-task phase. This phase took place during a regularly scheduled class period. The first part of the task phase involved a lesson plan teaching students how to use selected third position responses in French. As was said earlier, the materials for the task phase were developed from the French native speaker corpus described in Chapter 4 and are based on those used by Huth (2007) who carried out a similar project for beginning German learners. Prior to the task phase, I provided the instructor of the French 102 course with a lesson plan for a 50 minute class session. (Please see Appendix C for the lesson plan that was provided to the instructor.) Each subject participating in the study was provided with a hand-out to use and complete during the teaching unit (See Appendix D). The third position responses that were chosen for the lesson plan were those that occurred the most frequently in the native speaker corpus. They included positive and negative assessments, confirmation and understanding checks, surprised responses, and the acknowledgment tokens *d'accord* and *ok*.

During the first part of the lesson, the teacher used a PowerPoint to introduce the overview of the teaching unit. She explained the goals and objectives of the teaching unit, with the main one being that students would learn valuable vocabulary and new ways of speaking to help them sound more like French native speakers. She explained that the lesson was going to show the importance of knowing how to use certain expressions following a question-answer

sequence. Specifically, she presented an example of a question (*Où se situe le Louvre?* / ‘Where is the Louvre?’), an appropriate answer (*C’est à Paris*/ ‘It’s in Paris’), and a follow-up response (*D’accord*/ ‘All right’). She then asked the students to comment on why this response was correct. Some of the students commented that it is the right response to use after someone provides you with information.

Following this introduction of the unit and the activities, the teacher had the students get into pairs and work on the first activity on the hand-out. The first activity of the lesson had learners think about using appropriate third responses in English. For example, it included sample contexts in English which a question (e.g., Is that your new car?) and answer (e.g., Yeah, I bought it last week) were provided, and invited subjects to provide an appropriate follow-up third position response. Subjects were then asked to reflect on why these responses were appropriate. The teacher told students to think about why they picked the answers they did and then write down their reasons. The students got into pairs or small groups and discussed what their choices were and why they picked those choices. After giving the students several minutes to work on the activity, the teacher called on the students to give sample third position answers in English and asked them why they selected certain responses. Several of the students responded by saying that it was natural to make some sort of follow-up response to an answer after a question. Others responded that body language could also serve as a response to an answer. One student said that if a response did not immediately come after an answer it would appear as odd or weird (i.e., unnatural). Finally, one student indirectly alluded to pragmatics by saying that if a person does not use the third position responses appropriately, he/she may not be accustomed to closing down a conversation in that given language.

The next activity provided sample contexts for using the aforementioned third position responses in French. In other words, the goal of this activity was to teach subjects appropriate third position responses for specific interactional functions. For each context, there were accompanying audio or video files in which French native speakers used the various third position responses. The instructor played each file for the subjects. These files were taken from the French native speaker corpus discussed in Chapter 4. Subjects were able to follow along with the transcriptions of the conversations on their hand-outs. The subjects were then asked to comment on the specific type of question being asked and why these third position responses were appropriate.

The third activity during the teaching unit was a practice activity in which subjects were to match a third position response in French with the appropriate context. The final activity of the teaching unit was the actual speaking task. This activity was a role-play speaking task in which two subjects were paired up. In each pair, one subject either played the role of a tourist asking for directions to a famous landmark in Paris or the role of a local French person giving directions. The person asking the question was told to use an appropriate third position response based on the conversational models given. Subjects were instructed to switch roles after asking five questions so that each person had an opportunity to produce a third position response. During the role play, the teacher went around to each group to provide feedback on how they were progressing with the use of the third position responses. After the role play, there was a follow-up discussion during which the teacher asked each group to present a sample conversation with the question, answer, and third position response to the class. The teacher did provide feedback to each group in the form of correcting the directions given in the answer (SPP)

and then telling students they did a good job of using a third position response. Please consult Appendix C at the end of the dissertation to see the complete hand-out.

Even though this dissertation primarily focuses on CA and naturally occurring talk, the use of a role-play task as part of the learner study is still appropriate. That is, despite the potential criticism of using role-play tasks to elicit talk from learners in a dissertation that primarily focuses on naturally occurring talk without the constraints of a task, recent work by Huth (2010) shows that using role-play tasks to elicit talk is warranted. Specifically, Huth (2010) found that even when learners of German were engaged in a role-play task, their talk was still organized around various structures from their first language. Additionally, he found that learners engaged in a role-play constantly sought mutual alignment and contiguity in their talk, which mirrors what co-participants also strive for in naturally occurring talk. Another important aspect of role-plays from the Huth (2010) study is that subjects were playing themselves during the role-play, so they were familiar with the person that they were playing. They were not being forced to play a role with which they were unfamiliar. The same aspects of role-play also held true for my own study. Given these similarities in the talk, then, it seems justified to use a role-play task in a CA-focused project.

3.4.3 Procedure for the Post-task Phase

The post-task phase occurred three days after the task phase. The post-task occurred outside of the regularly scheduled class period. The main objective of the post-task was to see how successful (or not) subjects were at remembering how to use the third position responses that they were taught and then practiced during the task phase. During the post-task phase, the

subjects were engaged in the same type of conversational activity as the pre-task phase. Specifically, the post-task phase was the oral midterm exam for the French 102 class. During the oral midterm exam, the teacher was present to observe and grade pairs of students. For the exam, each pair of subjects was instructed by the teacher to randomly select a topic sheet with six questions on it related to the topic. The possible topics for the exam were communication and the town, vacation and transportation, and everyday life and the arts. Each student in the pair selected a topic card and was supposed to ask the six questions to his/her partner. This way, each student had the opportunity to practice asking and then responding to questions. As was mentioned earlier, due to exam security issues, the actual exam questions cannot be reproduced here.³ All of the subjects' conversations were video recorded. Given that there were 12 questions per pair, there were 60 total slots across the five pairs for subjects to potentially produce a third position response. It will be recalled that there were 100 possible slots across the five pairs during the pre-task phase. This design feature will be discussed in more detail in Chapter 5 with a comparison of language use between the pre-task and post-task.

Following the completion of their conversation, each pair filled out a language background questionnaire and a post-task questionnaire. Please consult Appendix E for a copy of the language background questionnaire and Appendix F for a copy of the post-task questionnaire. The results of the post-task questionnaire will also be discussed in Chapter 5.

³ However, if the reader is interested in seeing the questions, I would be happy to provide him/her with a copy of the questions.

3.5 Data Collection for the Current Study

The data from the French native speakers were collected by video recording or audio recording depending on whether the subjects were speaking in person or over the telephone. The audio and video and data collected were naturalistic or naturally occurring, in that the French native speaker subjects were producing the conversational data just as they would have in any other setting in which they would converse with other people and without the researcher being present. The data were also naturalistic since they were not being produced in a laboratory under experimental conditions that normally elicit specific types of data.

The data from the French language learners in the current study were collected by video recording during the different phases of the study: the pre-task phase, the introduction of the task materials during class, and the second part of the task phase with small groups conversing.

All native speaker and learner conversations were transcribed using the transcription system developed by Gail Jefferson as described in Atkinson & Heritage (1984). Specifically, the transcript captures all of the fine details of the emerging talk such as rising or falling intonation, speaker pauses, hedges or perturbations, stress on certain words, rushed speech, cut-offs or other events in the talk that show how the co-participants continually orient to what was just said and proceed on to the next turn. The complete list of transcription symbols used in the transcripts of the interactions can be found in the Appendix (please see Appendix F). Each line of talk will be represented by 3 lines in the transcript. The top line represents the French original, the second provides a word-by-word gloss, and the third provides an idiomatic English translation. For the native speaker data, only question answer sequences will be transcribed (and not, for instance, other sequences such as story tellings, complaints, informings, compliments, etc.). The native speaker data will be transcribed in their entirety.

3.6 Data Analysis for the Current Study

Following the recording and transcription of the video data as described above, the actual data analysis was from an emic perspective. In other words, the researcher approaches the video data and transcripts from the perspective of how the subjects themselves orient to one another on a turn-by-turn basis. In order to analyze the data, I did two things: 1) watch the videos to consider facial, hand, and body gestures as well as eye gaze amongst the co-participants while they are engaged in conversation, and 2) consult the transcripts of the conversations to analyze how the talk progresses on a turn-by-turn or line-by-line basis. Here, the focus was on turn design and sequence development. Looking at these two sources of data allows the researcher to remain faithful to the emic perspective, since the analysis will be describing and analyzing how the subjects themselves are continually orienting to one another as the talk progresses. All analysis, then, is only based on the collected data. The researcher only analyzes what is occurring between the co-participants.

For the data analysis specific to the current study, I did a comparative analysis of the pre-task phase with the native speaker data, and a comparison of the pre-task phase with the post-task phase in relation to the native speaker data. The comparison between data sets and phases demonstrates how subjects initially closed a sequence in the third position during the pre-task phase compared with talk from the post-task phase to see whether or not subjects were able to successfully incorporate native speaker expressions into their own talk. Upon reading the transcripts and watching the videos, I also compared the subjects' videos and transcripts with samples of French native speaker talk to see how well the subjects were able to use the appropriate sequence-closing third expressions in their talk. Comparing and contrasting the

subjects with the French native speaker baseline helped me to determine how effective the task activity was in the classroom.

Additionally, supplemental data from the subjects' language background questionnaire and post-task questionnaire were also consulted to see whether the subjects found the task to be beneficial to their language learning and whether the learners really wanted to sound more like native speakers when interacting with them in the target culture. These supplemental data did not serve as *a priori* ways of thinking when I approached the video and transcript data. However, they allowed me to provide possible further evidence for why certain subjects were more successful (or less so) than their peers when engaged in the conversation tasks. Using the questionnaire responses in tandem with the naturally occurring data will thus present a broader and more solid picture for why certain subjects conversed the way they did during the different pre-task and task sessions.

Chapter 4: Third Position Responses in French Native Speaker-Native Speaker Interaction

4.1 Introduction

This chapter deals with the analysis and explanation of third position responses (hereafter referred to as TPRs) in naturally occurring talk of French native speakers (NS). Specifically, this chapter focuses on TPRs that serve as a follow-up response in a sequence of talk consisting of a question in the first pair part (FPP), an answer in the second pair part (SPP), and then the follow-up response in the third position (TPR).

The chapter thus begins with a brief overview of the literature on adjacency pairs (i.e., FPPs and SPPs) then discusses preference organization, types of expansion with FPPs and SPPs, various examples of tokens that can occur in the third position not used in the second part of the dissertation teaching project, specific examples of TPRs from the French NS corpus that were used in the teaching unit for the second part of the dissertation, and finally concluding remarks on TPRs. The corpus consists of naturally occurring everyday talk in the form of approximately 7 hours of video recordings at mealtimes, as well as 2 hours and 45 minutes of audio-recorded telephone calls.

4.2 Summary of Adjacency Pairs

This section briefly recaps the main features of adjacency pairs. Please see Chapter 2 for a more detailed description. Schegloff (2007) and Sacks & Schegloff (1973) state that an organized sequence of talk between co-participants is composed of ordered turns, with the first turn of talk that is produced being the FPP, and with the second turn of talk immediately following it being the SPP. Examples of such so-called adjacency pairs can include such instances as a greeting-greeting, Question-Answer or Offer/Decline (Schegloff 2007: 13-14).

Within these sequences, the talk is quite coherent and accomplishes various societal actions in and through the talk (Schegloff 1990, 1995).

4.3 Overview of Adjacency Pairs and Expansion

As adjacency pairs and expansion were already explained in Chapter 2, I am only going to summarize the most vital parts here. Following the general overview of adjacency pairs and the types of responses one can expect in naturally occurring talk, it is important to understand the different positions at which an adjacency pair can be expanded. First off, there is the minimal two turn adjacency pair such as in greetings, seen in the example below, which is of a telephone call opening between French native speakers CB and EL taken from my own corpus:

Figure 4.1

```

1          ((telephone rings twice))

2 CB:      salut ( )?
           hello ( )?

3 EL:      salut tch he he Je n'te derange pas?
           hello tch he he I not you bother?
           hello tch he he I'm not bugging you?

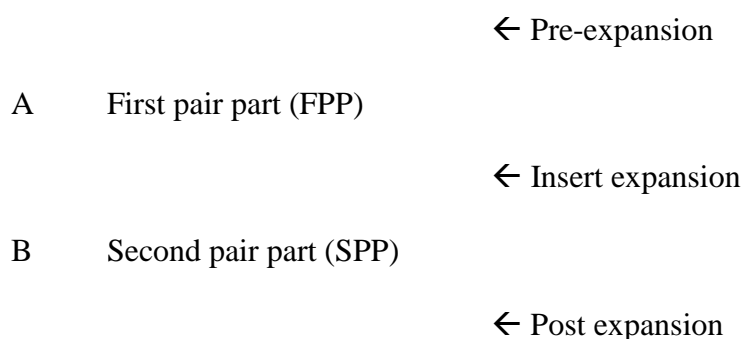
4          (.)

-> 5 CB:    alors, quoi de neuf?
           so what of new?
           so what's up?
```

In the phone call opening above, we see that telephone ringing in line 1 serves as the summons (FPP). In line 2, CB responds with *Salut ?* / 'Hello?' which is the response (i.e., the SPP). In line 3, EL produces the greeting *Salut tch he he je ne te derange pas?* / 'Hi, tch he he I'm not bugging you?', which is another FPP. Followed by the brief pause in line 4, CB produces *Alors, quoi de neuf?* / 'So, what's up?' as the SPP in response to EL's prior greeting, showing that he is not bothered by her calling him.

As stated in chapter 2, following the minimal, two turn adjacency pair there are several other types of expanded adjacency pairs that can occur in the talk when a co-participant inserts an extra turn of talk either before the FPP (a pre-expansion), after the FPP (an insert expansion), or after the SPP (a post-expansion). These different types of expansions are also possible in French as I will show in the following sections. Schegloff's (2007: 26) diagram that was already displayed in chapter 2 is repeated here for the convenience of the reader.

Figure 4.2



4.3.1 Pre-expansion

The first type of expansion to be considered is the pre-expansion, which comes before the FPP. Examples of pre-expansions can include telephone openings as seen in Figure 4.3 above as well as pre-announcements, pre-offers, pre-invitations, and other pre-tellings. Only one example will be given and analyzed here since the focus of this chapter is on post-expansions. The example below is of a pre-announcement, and is taken from my own French NS corpus:

Figure 4.3

M2U00010 6 :28 – 6 :46

(Molly and Valérie are in the kitchen discussing how to bake a cake)

- > 01 V: Je voulais te demander est-ce que si
I wanted you to ask is it that if
I wanted to ask you if
- 02 (.)
- 03 au lieu de 200 grammes de beurre tu mets 100 grammes
at place of 200 grams of butter you put 100 grams
instead of 200 grams of butter you used 100 grams
- 04 est-ce que ça fait le même effet?
is it that it makes the same effect ?
does it have the same effect?
- 05 M: Non.
No.
No.
- 06 (.)
- 07 V: D'accord.
Of agreement.
All right.
- 08 M: Parce que si tu mets 100 grammes de beurre
Because if you put 100 grams of butter
Because if you use 100 grams of butter
- 09 alors tu fais un petit gâteau.
so you make a small cake.
you make a smaller cake.
- 10 Alors tu mets que 100 grammes de farine.
So you you put that 100 grams of flour.
So you only use 100 grams of flour.
- 11 V: D'accord OK.
Of agreement OK.
All right OK.
- 12 M: 85 grammes de sucre.
85 grams of sugar.
85 grams of sugar.
- 13 Voilà.
There.
There you go.

In the example above, Valérie starts doing a pre-announcement in line 1 by announcing that she had been intending to ask about the different effects of adding less butter to the cake recipe than what the recipe calls for. There is a slight pause in line 2, and Valérie's pre-announcement then turns into the question that she was going to ask about using less butter, in lines 3-4. In line 5 Molly responds negatively to Valérie's question that using less butter will have the same effect. Following a brief pause in line 6, Valérie accepts this information with an "*All right*" in line 7. In lines 8-10 Molly goes on to explain that using less butter will result in making a smaller cake thus requiring using smaller amounts of other ingredients. In line 11 Valérie again acknowledges this new information with an "*All right OK.*" In line 12, Molly finishes the telling with the last ingredient amount for a smaller cake and finally confirms the new recipe for a smaller cake with "*there you go*" in line 13.

4.3.2 Insert expansion

As mentioned in chapter 2, another type of expansion to adjacency pairs are insert expansions which are located between the first and second pair part. Concerning a post-first insert expansion, Schegloff (2007) explains that type of expansion is related to repair which addresses problems with hearing or understanding the previous talk. The following example taken from *Corpus de Langues Parlées en Interaction* (CLAPI; Online: <http://clapi.univ-lyon2.fr>.) provides shows a post first insert expansion in French. In the example below, in which M, A, and L are all talking about some toys that they got from McDonald's, the focus will be on the insert expansion used for repair.

Figure 4.4

- 01 M: Ben oui pourquoi tu les mets sur ses pieds c'est pas malin.
Well yes why you them put on her feed that is neg wise
Well yeah why are you putting them on her feet that's not smart
- 02 A: Attention à la plante. Comment je fais pour filmer moi ?
Attention to the plant. How I do for to film me ?
Watch out for the plant. How do I film?
- 03 L: Regarde Aliyah.
Watch Aliyah.
Look Aliyah.
- 04 A: Ben oui je vois.
Well yes I see.
Well of course I'm looking
- 05 L: Les marionnettes. Regarde.
The puppets. Watch.
The puppets. Look.
- 06 A: Elles sont mexicaines ?
They are Mexican ?
Are they Mexican ?
- 07 L: Regarde le cochon.
Watch the pig.
Look at the pig.
- 08 M: Tu te souviens où tu l'as eu la cochonne ?
You yourself remember where you it hve had the pig ?
You remember where you got the pig?
- 09 L: Au Mac Donald
At Mac Donald
At McDonald's
- 10 M: Ouais
Yes
Yeah
- 11 L: Au Mac Donald
At Mac Donald
At McDonald's
- 12 A: A Londres le Mac Donald?
At London the Mac Donald ?
At the McDonald's in London?
- > 13 L: Quoi?
What?
What?

Figure 4.4 (cont'd)

- 14 A: A Londres le Mac Donald ou à Paris?
At London the Mac Donald or at Paris ?
At the McDonald's in London or in Paris?
- 15 L: A Londres
At London
In London
- 16 A: Il a des cousins?
He has some cousins ?
Does he have any cousins ?
- 17 M: Où?
Where?
Where?
- 18 A: A Londres.
At London
In London.
- 19 M: Non ma soeur elle a pas d'enfants. C'est ma petite sœur.
No my sister she has not of children. It is my little sister.
No my sister doesn't have any kids. She's my little sister.
- 20 L: Regarde maman.
Watch mom.
Look mom.
- 21 M: Mais enfin c'est comme si c'était sa cousine parce qu'ils ont
But at last it is like if it was her cousin because they have
But it's like if she was her cousin because they have
- 22 le même âge mental.
the same age mental.
the same mentality.
- 23 Non, je veux dire ils s'entendent très bien.
No, I want to say they ref. pro. get along very well.
No, I mean they get along very well.
- (L brings a toy to her mom.)
- 24 L: C'est pour le bébé quand il va sortir.
It is for the baby when he goes to go out.
It's for the baby when he comes.

In line 1, M is asking a rhetorical question about why someone is putting some unknown items on the child's feet followed by the assessment that it is not wise to do so. In lines 2-7 A and L are engaged in an instructional sequence with A asking how to film in line 2 and L saying to look at certain things in lines 3 and 5. L then says to look at *le cochon*/ 'the pig' in line 7. In line 8, M

asks where L got the pig, and L responds *Au Mc Donald*/ ‘At McDonald’s’ in line 9. In line 10, M acknowledges the receipt of this new information with *oui*/ ‘yeah.’ In line 11, L confirms that it was indeed McDonald’s by repeating the answer again. In line 12, A produces a confirmation check (e.g. a FPP) about whether it was the McDonald’s in London where L got the pig. This proves to be trouble source for L, and in line 13 she initiates repair and produces the insert expansion *Quoi?* / ‘What.’ In line 14, A orients to the trouble source of the prior turn and repeats the confirmation check in expanded form (i.e., with the inclusion of the second possibility of *Paris* as a place where L got the pig). In line 15, L confirms that it was the McDonald’s in London where s/he got the pig. In line 16, A orients to the trouble as being over and the subject complete as she then moves on to a new question. In line 17, M produces a clarification *Où?* / ‘Where?’ about where L got the pig, and in line 18 A responds that it was in London. In line 19, M responds to A’s question. In lines 21-23, M is engaged in a telling that further explains her answer to A’s question. In line 24, L brings M a toy that is for the new baby.

In chapter 2, I also discussed pre-second insert expansions for English. As the reader may recall, these are instances in which, instead of producing a relevant second pair part, a coparticipant initiates some other first pair part (typically a question) to elicit information that is relevant in order to provide the second pair part (Schegloff 2007). While it is absolutely conceivable that such expansions are also possible in French, my corpus did not yield any such examples. As an illustration for such sequences, the English example from chapter 2 (Merritt 1976:333), is repeated here but without an analysis.

Figure 4.5

(6.16) Merritt, 1976:333

```

1 Cus: Fb    -> May I have a bottle of Mich?
2 Ser: Fi    -> Are you twenty one?
3 Cus: Si    -> No
4 Ser: Sb    -> No

```

An important component of the insert expansion as described by Schegloff (2007) is that the insert expansion must be initiated by the recipient of the preceding FPP, and therefore talk coming from a third party cannot be considered an insert expansion. Similar to pre-expansions, only one example of an insert expansion will be given and analyzed because the main focus of this chapter is on post-expansions.

4.3.3 Post-expansions

As mentioned in chapter 2, the final type of expansion to be considered in adjacency pairs is the post-expansion, which occurs after the SPP. One major component of post-expansions is that they are unique ways to close down a sequence of talk. This is important because, according to Sacks and Schegloff (1973), each conversational sequence, turn, or other structured unit will have a recognizable form of closure. Specifically, when a speaker produces a particular FPP (e.g., extending an invitation), the co-participant will orient to what was just said and produce a relevant SPP that would normally close that particular sequence of talk (e.g., accepting the invitation). Moreover, when a dispreferred SPP is given to the preceding FPP, such as rejecting an offer, the sequence will be expanded. The major types of post-expansion that will be considered, then, are sequence closing thirds (“oh,” “okay,” and assessments), other-initiated repair, and rejecting/challenging/disagreeing with the SPP as they occur within talk between French native speakers.

4.3.4 Miscellaneous Third Position Categories

In this section I will briefly address some miscellaneous categories that can occur in the third position that I chose not to include in the teaching unit (i.e. the second part) of the dissertation project. These categories include: repair in talk, laughter, remembering, and the token *merci* / ‘Thank you.’

The major reason for not including these miscellaneous third position categories in the second part of my dissertation project is that they did not occur frequently enough in my French NS corpus and therefore a systematic analysis of them was not possible. That said, I do not have the basis on what to teach the learners. That is, given that the specific goal of the teaching unit (which will be explained in more detail in the next chapter) was to take frequently occurring third position categories and teach learners how to successfully incorporate them into their conversational repertoires, I felt it unnecessary to incorporate the less frequently occurring ones in the teaching unit. Therefore, since they were not included in the teaching unit, they will not be discussed at length in this chapter. I will, however, point the reader to some references where they can read more about the various categories mentioned above.

For the category of repair, the reader will find the sources listed in section 2.9 of my review of literature chapter on repair especially helpful. Specifically, work by Schegloff, Jefferson, and Sacks (1977) on the types of repair occurring in American English are helpful. Please see work by Maheux-Pelletier and Golato (2003, 2008) for work on repair in German and French. For the category of laughter, work by Gavioli (1995), Glen (2003), Holt (2011), Jefferson (2004), and Vettin and Dodt (2004) is insightful on how laughter occurs and is oriented to in conversations. Concerning remembering as it occurs in conversation, the reader will find works by Betz & Golato (2008) and Middleton (1997) helpful. For the token *merci* / ‘Thank you’

as it occurs in French conversation, the reader should consult work by Mondada (2009a, 2009b) for work in French and Hartford & Bardovi-Harlig (1992) for English conversational closings.

4.4 Sequence Closing Thirds

As mentioned in chapter 2, Schegloff (2007) describes sequence-closing thirds as a type of minimal post-expansion which involve the addition of one additional turn to an adjacency pair. This additional turn is meant to be a slight expansion of the SPP in order to push the current sequence of talk towards closure. The co-participants within the current talk can either orient to or align with this additional turn or they can disagree with it. Sequence-closing thirds can also be found after both preferred and dispreferred SPPs. The three most common sequence-closing thirds that will be examined in more detail in this chapter are “oh,” “okay,” and assessments. The following sections provide a detailed analysis of different sequence closing types in French. In each section, I will first summarize the relevant research conducted on English and other languages (if available). In each section, I will then describe my findings on French sequence closing thirds that are based on my systematic analyses of the French native speaker corpus.

4.4.1 Analysis of Sequence Closing Thirds

This next section of the chapter analyzes various sequence closing thirds that were found in the French native speaker (NS) data. More specifically, they are examples that were included in the second part of the dissertation project, a teaching unit that will be discussed in the next chapter. The specific examples that will be discussed in turn are as follows: “oh,” “OK,” “D’accord,” “oui/ouais,” positive and negative assessments, composites (i.e., “D’accord OK”), and topicalization.

4.4.2 “Oh”

The first type of sequence closing third to be discussed is “oh.” This type of sequence closing third is what Heritage (1984) refers to as a change of state token. As was mentioned in chapter two, the speaker who produces an “oh” token in the third position is producing a follow-up to a response in the second turn. In American English, the “oh” token signifies a change of state in the person uttering the “oh.” That is, the person uttering the *oh* moves from a not knowing to a knowing state, from a state of not having understood to a state of now understanding the prior talk. Additionally, Wilkinson & Kitzinger (2006) point out that an “oh” can indicate a surprised state on the part of the co-participant who has just produced the “oh” token. While *oh* can occur in different sequential positions (Heritage 1984), the two major examples of “oh” in the third position can occur 1) after a response to a requestor a confirmation check has been provided and 2) after some sort of repair such as when something needs to be repeated or clarified from the preceding turn.

To again illustrate the two different examples of “oh” in the third position in English, the examples from chapter two are presented here. In the first example from Schegloff (2007: 119), “oh” is occurring in a sequence-closing third to a request-for-information. In this example, Nan and Hyla are discussing Hyla’s current romantic interest.

Figure 4.6

(7.03) HG, 16:25-33

	1	Nan:	=·hhh Dz <u>he</u> av iz own apa:rtmen[mint?]
	2	Hyl:	[·hhhh] Yea:h,=
→	3	Nan:	= <u>Oh</u> :,
	4		(1.0)
	5	Nan:	<u>How</u> didju get iz <u>number</u> ,
	6		(.)
	7	Hyl:	I (h) (.) <u>c</u> (h)alled information'n San
	8		Fr'ncissc(h) [<u>uh</u> !
	9	Nan:	[<u>Oh</u> ::::.
	10		(.)

In the above example, the first sequence begins with Nan's FPP in line 1 asking Hyla a question to which Hyla produces an affirmative response in her SPP in line 2. In line 3, then, the "oh" is the sequence-closing third that claims or signals that Nan now possesses new information about this person's lodging. Similarly, in line 5, a new adjacency pair begins with a FPP that is Nan's request for information about getting the man's phone number. In lines 7 and 8 Hyla offers her response to the request for information in this SPP. The sequence closes in line 9, in which Nan utters a prolonged "oh" claiming that she now understands how Hyla was able to get the man's phone number.

The second example with "oh" is when it is used in repair sequences in which information from the preceding talk prior to the trouble source has been repeated or clarified due to a trouble source. In the example below, taken again from Schegloff (2007: 119-120), the co-participants are talking about working out together. The current example starts at line 16 since the previous 15 lines are not fundamental to understanding the "oh" token in line 26.

Figure 4.7

(7.04) SN-4, 14:01-30

	16	She:	Er you [doing ju]mping jacks?
	17	Mar:	[N : o .]
	18	Mar:	Oh no no.
	19	Sh?:	[huh huh]
	20	Kar:	[Nuh that's] prob'ly Bea [you hear.]
	21	Ru?:	[hm-hm-hm-hm-]hm
	22		(0.5)
	23	She:	Prob'ly what?
	24	Kar:	Me.
	25		(.)
→	26	She:	Oh.
	27		(0.8)
	28	Mar:	No I don't do ju]mping jacks.=I do just y'know sit ups,
	29		pull u-no. not pull ups:- (.) all those things ·hh(hh)
	30		(0.5)

In this example, the sequence of interest starts in line 16 when Sheila asks a question about who is doing jumping jacks. When Karen responds in line 20 that Sheila is probably hearing Bea

doing jumping jacks, this becomes a trouble source for Sheila. In line 23, then, Sheila produces the FPP, initiating repair in line 20. In line 24 Karen produces the SPP repeating the person that Sheila most likely is hearing. In line 26, Sheila then utters “Oh” which is the sequence-closing third since she has claimed that she is aware of who was making the noise. The trouble source has now been repaired, and the recipient claims to be in a state of now-knowing.

Additionally, another component of “oh” in the third position to consider is the way in which the token is uttered. For example, Local (1996: 183) points out that the pitch of the “oh” token is falling in such instances due to the “finality/completeness” of the completed action. The falling pitch was also confirmed by Aijmer (1987) in a majority of the occurrences of “oh” that she studied, and furthermore, this can be seen in the above example.

Other languages also have tokens that function similarly to the “oh” in American English. Two such tokens are “ach” in German and “Hee” in Japanese. In German, Betz & Golato (2008), Golato & Betz (2008), and Golato (2010), discuss that when “ach” is uttered in the third position by a recipient upon receiving new information, the “ach” signals the information was receipted. With regard to the second major example of “oh” above, that is, following a repair sequence, Golato (2010), Golato & Betz (2008), and Betz & Golato (2008) point out that German also has the token *achso*, which is produced in the third position following a successful repair operation to show understanding. Additionally, in Japanese, Mori (2006: 1201) points out that the token “Hee” is produced by a recipient of new information to show that this new information is “newsworthy,” and it can also be used to demonstrate understanding following a repair sequence, just like the second major example of “oh” in English.

Now that “oh” has been discussed in English as well as tokens similar to “oh” in other languages, the next part of the chapter will discuss occurrences of “oh” in French. In the

following example, Roger, Coré, and Molly are sitting around the dinner table. Roger asks Coré what he wants to eat for their next dinner together on Thursday.

Figure 4.8

M2U00015 23:44 – 24:07

- 01 R: Mais qu'est-ce que tu préfères jeudi?
 But that is it that you prefer Thursday ?
But what do you prefer for Thursday?
- 02 C: Les gnucchis ((smile voice))
 The gnucchis ((smile voice))
 The *gnucchis* ((smile voice))
- > 03 R: Ahh↑
 Ahh↑
 Ahh↑
- 04 R: [Voi-]
 [Her-]
 [*Her*-]
- 05 M: [Les]gno:cchi:s ((smiles and wags finger))
 [The]gno:cchi:s ((smiles and wags finger))
 [*The*] *gno:cchi:s* ((smiles and wags finger))
- 06 R: Les gnocchis gno::chis
 The gnocchis gno::chis
 The gnocchis gno::chis
- 07 (1.0)
- 08 M: [gnak]
 [gnak]
 [*gnak*]
- 09 C: [Suivant que ça fait] moins de travail ou plus de travail ?
 [Following that it does] less of work or more of work ?
 [*So does it require*] *less work or more work ?*
- 10 M: Oui mais c'est parei::l pour moi ((shakes head; pushes hands out))
 Yes but it is sa::me for me ((shakes head; pushes hands out))
 Yes but it's all the sa::me to me ((shakes head; pushes hands out))
- 11 R: Ah [non]
 Ah [no]
 Ah [*no*]
- 12 C: [Oui] c'est pareil [mais uhh ()]
 [Yes] it is same [but uhh ()]
 [Yes] *it's the same* [but uhh ()]

Figure 4.8 (cont'd)

- 13 R: [Mais il faut faire une sauce
[But it must to make a sauce
[But you have to make a sauce
- 14 R: La sauce ou pour les gnocchis ou pour les euh les euh [le heh heh
The sauce or for the gnocchis or for the euh the euh [the heh heh
The sauce or for the gnocchis or for the euh the euh [the heh heh
- 15 C: [ah oui ah oui
[ah yes ah yes
[ah yes ah yes
- 16 C: >>Oui mais oui mais<< moi je chais pas si (°je suis pas là°)
>>Yes but yes but<< me I know neg. if (°I am neg. there°)
>> Yeah but yeah but<< me I don't if (°I'm not there°)
- 17 R: oui c'est pareil c'est exactement pareil
Yes it is same it is exactly same
Yeah it's the same exactly the same

In the above example, Roger asks Coré what he prefers to eat for dinner on Thursday in line 1. Coré responds with *gnuchhi* and a smile voice in line 2. In line 3 Roger responds with the change of state token *Ah* since he now knows of K's preference for dinner. In this line we have the third position response to Roger's question (FPP) from line 1. In this third position response, the token "Ah" acts similar to "Oh" in English in that it shows a change of state. Additionally, the *Ahh* in line 3 acts similarly to the *ach* in German and the *Hee* in Japanese in that it confirms the receipt of the new information that was previously unknown to the recipient.

Following this *Ahh* in line 3, the sequence is in the process of closing down. Accordingly, then, a new sequence of talks ensues with Roger starting to produce the lexical item *her-* before dropping out in line 4. This follows with Molly in line 5 doing an other-initiated other-completed repair on Coré's pronunciation of "gnucchi" in line 2, and she produces the correct pronunciation of *gno:cchi* with stress on the *o*. Her other-initiated other-completed repair is accompanied by her smiling and wagging her finger at Coré. This other-initiated other-completed repair is a sequence expansion rather than a sequence-closing third. Roger's *Ah* in line 3 attempted to close

the sequence, but instead it is expanded as Molly initiates and completes a repair on Coré's pronunciation from line 2. In line 6 Roger aligns with Molly and also does an other-initiated other-completed repair on Coré's pronunciation of "gnucchi" in line 2. Roger accomplishes this by producing *gnocchi* twice and adding stress on the second utterance of *gnocchi* (*gno::cchi*). This is followed by a 1 second pause in line 7.

In line 8 Molly produces the expression *gnak* that overlaps with part of Coré's observation in line 9. Additionally in line 9 Coré asks the question if making *gnocchi* will require more or less work. In line 10 Molly answers the question indirectly by responding that making the dish for Coré will take as much time as other dishes usually do, and she does this in a roundabout way by saying that it is exactly the same to her if the preparation will take more or less work (with an emphasis on *same*). Her talk is accompanied by her shaking her head and pushing out her hands. In line 11 Roger produces *Ah no* to negatively respond to Coré's question from line 9 about the amount of work needed to prepare the upcoming dinner. Here the *ah* functions as an acknowledgement token of the problem (whether or not the *gnocchis* will require more preparation time) posed in Coré's question. Molly acknowledges the question with the *ah* before rejecting the notion that the preparation required will increase. In line 12 Coré's talk overlaps with Roger's utterance and repeats it to acknowledge he understands it but still has an issue with it followed by *mais* / 'but' and some incomprehensible speech. In line 13 Roger overlaps with the incomprehensible part of Coré's observation in line 12 and makes the observation that a sauce will have to be made. This is perhaps a reinforcement of the fact that Roger is aligning with Coré's observation that making *gnocchi* for dinner will indeed take more time. In line 14 Roger continues the observation that the sauce will be for the *gnocchi* and then engages in a word search for the other possible food candidate that would require a sauce; this

ends with a slight laugh *heh heh*. In line 15 Coré overlaps with the end of Roger's word search in line 14 and agrees with Roger's observation by repeating *ah oui ah oui* / 'oh yeah oh yeah'; signifying that perhaps Roger's word search could be abandoned. Additionally, as with the *ah* in line 11, the *ah* in line 15 acknowledges the new information from Roger's response in lines 13-14. Furthermore, in line 15 as in line 2, the *ah* seems to be initiating a sequence expansion rather than closing down the sequence of talk with regard to the question asked in line 9. In line 16 Coré confirms that he understands Roger's observation by again repeating *mais oui mais oui* / 'but yes but yes' while also acknowledging the problem of his presence causing extra work *mais je chais pas si je suis pas là* / 'But I dunno if I'm there'. In line 17 Roger restates Molly's earlier observation that it is exactly the same in terms of the preparation.

To summarize, then, the roles of the *ah* / 'oh' in French, it has a function that is similar to its counterpart "oh" in English (Schegloff 2007, Kitzinger 2006, Heritage 1984). In line 3, for example, we can see that the *ahh* is a token that shows the receipt of new information on the part of the interlocutor to whom the utterance was made (i.e. a question was asked, a response was given, and the person asking the question acknowledges the new information). Additionally, the *ah* can be used as an attempt to close down a sequence of talk in the third position, but as in the example above in line 3, it can also expand a sequence of talk. Additionally, the *ah* can come in a composite structure such as "*ah oui* / 'oh yeah', such as line 15, where it again acknowledges the new information before the co-participant will go on to either agree ("ah oui") or disagree ("ah non") with the response that was uttered in the previous turn.

4.4.3 “Okay”

The next section of this chapter discusses the token “okay” as sequence-closing third. With regard to “okay” in the third position in American English, Schegloff (2007) and Beach (1995, 1993) have said the “okay” represents acceptance of a SPP as well as the stance it embodies within the sequence in which it occurs. Similarly, Guthrie (1997) has called “okay” an acknowledgement token (i.e. acknowledging the SPP) when it is used in the third position. As an example of “okay” in the third position, work done by Pillet-Shore (2003) has shown that “okay” can demonstrate an understanding of a prior assessment, such as a parent accepting a teacher’s prior assessment of the child’s work. In terms of “okay” being a sequence-closing third, Beach (1993) says that “okay” can come at the end of one speaker’s prior talk and signify a transition-ready space for new talk. Additionally, work by Beach (1995) and Rendle-Shore (1999) confirms that the role of “okay” in the third position in the context of institutional talk is similar to everyday talk. Beach (1995) points out that in doctor-patient interactions, “okay” is used by doctors in the third position to close down one topic of health-related talk before moving on to the next topic. Rendle-Shore (1999) points out that in the case of the classroom, “okay” is used to close down a sequence of prior talk before moving on to the next topic. In the case of other languages, Barske (2009) reports that German speakers also use “ok” to acknowledge a prior utterance, just as speakers do in American English. To date, no further analyses of “okay” in other languages have been carried out.

In the case of the current project, the placement of “okay” within the talk, such as after the preferred SPP of an adjacency pair is the primary concern. To illustrate “okay” in the third position in English, an example from Schegloff (2007) will be used. In the example below, John,

Beth and Don are eating Chinese food at John and Beth's home. The example of "okay" in this sequence comes after the offer of pouring something:

Figure 4.9

(7.05) Chinese Dinner, 39:29-40 (simplified)

	1 Don:	Shall I pour it out?	
	2 Jon:	No I rih- I don' want that much. Rea[lly].	=
→	3 Don:		[Oh okay.
	4 Jon:	=I jus' wannid 'l bit ()
	5 Don:	Okay.	
	6	(0.5)	

In the example above, line 1 is a FPP in which Don asks if he can pour something out. Jon responds with a negative response with his SPP in line 2. In line 3, Don then utters an "okay" which is the sequence-closing third. He has thus come to accept the SPP and realized that his offer is not being accepted by the fellow co-participant Jon. Additionally, in line 4, Jon offers another SPP that clarifies why he is rejecting the offer in line 1. To this Don utters another "okay" in line 5 which again is another sequence-closing third showing his continuing understanding of why his offer is being rejected.

Now that the token "okay" has been analyzed and discussed in English and other languages, I will focus on how it is used in French. In French, there are several different tokens that acknowledge a prior utterance as "okay" does when used in the sequential third position in English. In French, these tokens are *ok*, *D'accord* 'Ok / All right', and *oui / ouais* 'yes / yeah'. An example of each token will now be presented and analyzed.

For the token "ok," I will analyze a conversational sequence in which Molly and Valérie are discussing how to prepare garlic purée. Prior to this particular sequence, they had been discussing differences in food between France and America. Molly then mentions that she ate garlic purée during a visit to America, and then she proceeds to discuss how to prepare it.

Figure 4.10

M2U00003 9:35-9:41

- 1 V: Donc tu fais par tu le fais par fo:n [dre
 So you make by you it make by to me[:lt
So you make by you make it by me:l [ting
 [
- 2 M: [je le fais avec ↑
 [I it make with ↑
[I make it with ↑
- 3 V: euh avec l'huile d'olive à l'origine? ((Makes stirring motion))
 uhh with the oil of olive at the origin ((Makes stirring motion))
uhh originally with olive oil? ((Makes stirring motion))
- 4 M: No:n ((Shakes head))
No: ((shakes head))
No: ((shakes head))
- => 5 V: Ok
 Ok
 Ok
- 6 M: Voilà: ↑
 There: ↑
There you go: ↑

In line 1, Valérie begins to produce a confirmation check of how Molly prepares the garlic purée. Valérie's talk is overlapped with the beginning of Molly's response in line 2 that ends with rising intonation before dropping out. In line 3 Valérie seems to have abandoned her prior talk from line 1 and instead collaboratively completes Molly's turn by initiating a word search for *l'huile d'olive* 'olive oil' and then finishing it with a stirring gesture. In line 4 Molly rejects Valérie's proffered suggestion with an emphatic No:n/ 'No:' accompanied by a shaking of her head. In line 5, Valérie then acknowledges this refutation of her proposed suggestion by producing an "OK." In line 6, Molly further confirms that Valérie's proposed suggestion was wrong by reaffirming Valérie's acknowledgement of the rejection through the utterance of *Voilà:↑* / 'There you go:↑' .

For the next example, I will analyze and discuss the use of the token *D'accord* (OK / All right) in the third position. While no prior work has been written on the specific use of *D'accord* in the third position, it functions as "okay" does in English. This will be made apparent through

the analysis given below. In the sequence that follows, Nathalie has been talking about a friend who has to travel far for work. Sylvie and Nathalie then talk about how they wouldn't like to travel far for work in the current cold weather; Sylvie asks Nathalie what the low temperature is for her region (Pas-de-Calais) in France.

Figure 4.11

10032403 01:14:46 – 01:14:57

- 01 S: Quel est est le minimum dans dans le nord Pas-de-Calais ?
Who is is the minimum in in the north Pas-de-Calais?
What is is the lowest temperature in the north Pas-de-Calais?
- 02 N: Hhhh oui en fait il est généralement moins sept moins cinq moins sept
Hhhh yes in fact it is generally minus seven minus five minus seven
Hhhh yeah in fact it's generally minus seven minus five minus seven
- 03 ->S: D'acco [rd
Of agreeme[nt
All rig[ht
[
- 04 N: [Je pense
[I think
[I think
- 05 S: OK
OK
OK

In line 1, Sylvie asks an informational question about what is the low temperature for Nathalie's region (Pas-de-Calais) in France for the winter. In line 2, Nathalie begins her response with an outbreath followed producing a *oui*/ 'yes' that shows she acknowledges the question. She then does a remembering with the words *en faite*/ 'in fact' for the information that the low temperature for her region in France is *moins sept moins cinq*/ "minus 7 minus 5 degrees [Centigrade]". In line 3, Sylvie produces the *D'accord* / 'All right' which acknowledges Nathalie's answer in line 2. Here, the *D'accord* essentially functions in the same way as the "ok" token in French described above. It acknowledges the new information being delivered (and

receipted) in Nathalie's response to Sylvie's question. In line 5, Nathalie hedges on her prior statement by adding *Je pense*/'I think' as an increment to her turn (Schegloff 1996). In this instance, it serves to show that she is not entirely sure about what she has just said. This overlaps with Sylvie's *D'accord* in line 3. In line 5, Sylvie acknowledges Nathalie's statement with *Ok* to show that she again accepts this information. By seeing how *D'accord* and *Ok* are used in the context of acknowledging or accepting new information, it is easy to see how they play similar roles within spoken French.

To summarize, then, we can see that *Ok* and *D'accord* in the third position play similar roles to that of "okay" in American English. Both of these tokens serve as an acknowledgement of new information that comes in the second position following a question in the first position. In the above example, *Ok* in the third position moves to close down the sequence of talk as it signifies the acknowledgement of the SPP (i.e. the rejection of the proffered suggestion in the confirmation check). As further evidence of its role in closing down the sequence, the next line of talk - *Voilà* - confirms the acknowledgement of the SPP. With regard to the *D'accord*, we see that the co-participant producing the *D'accord* in the third position is also acknowledging information in a just-completed turn. This also closes down the sequence of talk as Nathalie produces a *Je pense* to more or less reaffirm what information she has just given, and in response Sylvie acknowledges this with an *Ok*. Additionally, it can be pointed out that *d'accord* and *Ok* are largely equivalent due to their prosodic elements and due to the fact that they can both be used in the third position in a variety of settings. Based on initial findings from my corpus, both *d'accord* and *Ok* are produced largely with falling intonation and with no marked pronunciation. Sequentially, both tokens in the third position can follow an understanding check, an

informational yes/no question, and an informational wh- question. These roles of acknowledging information are similar, then, to what *Ok* does in both English and German.

4.4.4 Oui / Ouais

This next section discusses the acknowledgement token *oui / ouais* ‘yes/yeah.’ In American English, the “yes” or “yeah” token occurs when the recipient acknowledges or confirms the receipt of the prior utterance(s) by the co-participant who produced it (Drummond & Hopper 1993, Jefferson 1984). With regard to “yes” or “yeah” in the third position, this token acknowledges or confirms the information in the SPP in response to the question in the FPP. Mazeland (1990) and Jefferson (1984a) also mention that when “yeah” is used in English, speakers producing it are taking on a more active role rather than producing a passive “mm hm” to acknowledge receipt. In addition to acknowledging the receipt of information, the token “yes” or “yeah” can serve also as a continuer whereby the co-participant producing it acknowledges the information and allows for the fellow co-participant to continue with his/her ongoing talk following the acknowledgement token (Drummond & Hopper 1993). In order to clarify between the two possible roles of *yes* and *yeah* as either a continuer or an acknowledgement token, a brief explanation of what distinguishes one from the other sequentially will be given.

First, for continuers, Jefferson (1984a) states that the continuer is a second pair part (SPP) that is not necessarily made relevant by a first pair part (FPP). That is, a continuer is produced when prior talk does not make a response necessary, such as when a co-participant produces a *yeah* or *mm hm* during ongoing talk such as a longer telling. Additionally, when a co-participant produces a continuer like *mm hm* or a weak *yeah*, they are taking on a more passive role in the conversation and will not propose a change in terms of speaker role, that is, allowing the current

ongoing talk to continue. Schegloff (1982) also mentions that a co-participant producing a continuer is aware that the current ongoing talk is not yet complete. In terms of the conversational sequence, this means that a continuer in the third position will be interjected into the ongoing talk (i.e. a question in the FPP, a response in the SPP, and the continuer in the third position). The co-participant producing the SPP will continue on with his/her talk. In terms of prosody, Gardener (1995, 1997) states that *mm hm* used as a continuer has a fall-rising contour. Additionally, Müller (1996: 132) says that such tokens are “non-interference” tokens as they do not interfere with the ongoing talk.

With regard to *mm hm*, *yes/ yeah* as an acknowledgement token, Jefferson (1984a) states that an acknowledgement token is produced when a second pair-part (SPP) is made relevant by a first pair-part (FPP). For example, if there is a FPP that ends with rising intonation and normally requires a confirmation, then a SPP such as a *yeah* would therefore be acknowledgement token. Additionally, when a co-participant produces a stronger *yeah*, he/she may be wanting to move into “speakership” and change the role of who will speak next. Additionally, Gardner (1995, 1997) has said that *mm hm* is a weaker acknowledgement token than *yeah*. Sequentially, this means that the co-participant producing the *yeah* may then continue with the role of speaker and produce new talk in the same turn (instead of allowing the prior speaker to continue with his/her talk).

With regard to other languages, Mazeland (1990) has shown that Dutch speakers use the *ja* (yes) token to acknowledge receipt of information in a prior turn, just as English speakers do with “yes” or “yeah.” Fontaney (1991) has also described how the token *oui* (yes) is used in French to confirm previous talk in the second position.

For the next example, I will look at the role that the token “oui/ouais” (yes/yeah) plays in the third position when it is used to acknowledge a SPP. In this particular sequence, Sylvie and Nathalie have been discussing possible summer job options at the university for international students who hold a certain type of visa. In lines 1-10 Nathalie had asked Sylvie about what type of visa she holds. Now Nathalie asks Sylvie what kinds of job options are available.

Figure 4.12

10032403 01:17:17 – 01:17:52

- 11 N: Qu'est-ce qu'on peut faire ?
Th at is it that one can do ?
Wh at can one do ?
- 12 S: Ben alors uh y a très peu de postes mais
Well so uh there has very little of jobs but
Well so uh there's very few jobs but
- 13 tu peux enseigner l'été uh hh c'est de tu peux
you can to teach the summer uh it's of you can
you can teach during the summer uh it's you can
- 14 enseigner le français intensif↓ hhh ((swallows))
to teach the French intensive↓ hhh
teach intensive French↓ hhh
- > 15 N: Ouais
Yeah
Yeah
- 16 S: Peut-être pour deux périodes uh sinon après uh c'est vrai que
Can to be for two periods uh or else after uh it is true that
Maybe for two sessions uh or else after that uh it's true that
- 17 ben tu peux travailler dans n'importe dans n'importe quel domaine au
well you can to work in neg. any in neg. any what domain to the
well you can work in any in any sector at
- 18 niveau de l'université
level of the university
the university level

In line 11, Nathalie asks what someone can do for work with their particular type of visa. In line 12, Sylvie starts to respond and engages in a word search for *y a*/ ‘there’s’ before saying

there are not very many jobs. In line 13 Sylvie continues her explanation that it's possible to teach over the summer. She then engages in another word search in line 13 before further explaining that one can teach intensive French over the summer in line 14. In line 15, Nathalie produces the token *ouais*/ 'Yeah' as a follow-up to Sylvie's explanation to what one can do over the summer. The *ouais*/ 'Yeah' serves as a continuer for Sylvie to proceed with her explanation of the possible summer job options. Here, the continuer also communicates that there was no problem with the turn at talk. That is, it serves as an alternative to doing repair (Schegloff 1981). Additionally, it does not signal a change in speakership (Jefferson 1984a) as Sylvie continues on with her turn of talk. In line 16, Sylvie does continue with her explanation. She engages in a brief word search for *sinon* / 'if not' and again for *c'est* / 'it's' in line 16. In line 17 she continues with her explanation and engages in another word search for *quel* / 'what' and then finishes her explanation in line 18.

In summary, the token "yes" or "yeah" token acts as another acknowledgement token to prior completed talk. The co-participant producing the token is therefore acknowledging the prior talk of his/her fellow co-participant (Drummond & Hopper 1993, Jefferson 1984a). Additionally, the token "yes" or "yeah" can serve as a continuer which does not interrupt the ongoing talk (Müller 1996) and allows the person who is speaking to continue on with his/her talk (Drummond & Hopper 1993). In French, the tokens *oui*/ 'Yes' and *ouais*/ 'Yeah' also serve as acknowledgement tokens of prior talk and as a continuer for ongoing talk, as seen in the example above. When Nathalie asks a question about what work is available, Sylvie responds, and then Nathalie acknowledges this with a *ouais*/ 'yeah.' Sylvie then proceeds with her talk since this token is non-intrusive to the ongoing talk (Müller 1996). This is similar to what Mazeland (1990) has shown with *ja*/ 'yeah' for Dutch speakers. Additionally, it can be pointed out that the

difference between *oui* and *ouias* is largely the register with which each token is associated. *Oui* is the more formal form like ‘yes’ in English whereas *ouiais* is the more informal or familiar form like ‘yeah’ in English. When both tokens are used together, based on the one example from my corpus, it was found the *oui* token comes first. This is most likely because *oui* is the more standard form used to acknowledge information and then the more informal token *ouais* is used a follow-up to confirm what was just acknowledged.

4.4.5 Assessments

In this next section, I will start with a general discussion on assessments (as they occur in the FPP and SPP), both positive and negative. I will then move on to discuss assessments as they occur in the third position. Goodwin & Goodwin (1987: 6) state that co-participants use assessments to “evaluate in some fashion persons or events being described in their talk.” Goodwin & Goodwin (1987: 9) also state that when co-participants do an “assessment activity,” they not only produce an assessment, but they also “monitor the assessment relevant actions of others” within the talk. Assessments can be positive or negative (Clayman 1998). Also, assessments can take several forms such as those which contain lexical content (e.g. ‘wonderful’ or Oh Wow!) or else in the forms of sounds (e.g. ‘Ah:::’) (Goodwin 1986). Assessments don’t always have to consist of lexical items, they can also be reproduced as nods to confirm an assessment made by the fellow co-participant (Goodwin & Goodwin 1987). For example, nods, glances, and head shakes that accompany a positive assessment are integrated into the ongoing interaction as a way to positively assess some entity, such as the quality of food, during a mealtime interaction (Goodwin & Goodwin 1992, Goodwin & Goodwin 1987; Mondada 2009b).

Pomerantz (1984) describes the action of proffering assessments as a way for co-participants to both be involved in or sharing the action. Following an initial assessment, a second assessment can agree or disagree with the first assessment. For example, when one co-participant produces a second assessment to one that was just made, this second assessment can either be upgraded or downgraded with regard to the first. In American English, second assessments that are upgraded and thus agreements with the first assessments are preferred responses (e.g. “Isn’t it a beautiful day out?” / “Yeah, it’s just gorgeous!”). The other possible type are those that do not agree or are not immediately forthcoming. These are known as dispreferred responses. Concerning assessments in the second position in other languages, in everyday Swedish and Danish conversations, as in English, assessments can be upgraded with intensifiers or stronger lexical items. Additionally, these languages follow the same preference structure as in English, meaning that assessments are also upgraded in the second turn position. For example, in Danish, the adjective *godt* / ‘good’ can be upgraded to *rigtigt godt* / ‘really good’ in the second position. Additionally, in Swedish, the adjective *bra* / ‘good’ can be upgraded to *jättebra* / ‘very good’ in the second position (Lindström & Hienemann 2009). Additionally, in French, Mondada (2009a, 2009b) demonstrated that assessments can be used in institutional talk to close down a sequence of talk in the second position (i.e. when a car salesman explains the features of a car followed by a customer assessing the car’s features).

According to Schegloff (2007), assessments in the third position of a sequence are normally produced by the producer of the FPP and articulate a stance taken up by the producer of the FPP of the particular adjacency pair. Sacks (1975) called these assessments parts of “personal state inquiry” wherein co-participants talk about affairs in a particular sequence of talk. In other words, once the assessment of the SPP has been made, the co-participants will normally take the

current sequence to be completed and then move on to a new sequence. Furthermore, assessments in the third position do not necessarily get a response. In contrast to the role of assessments in the third position in mundane everyday talk, Jones (2001) has shown that in doctor-patient interactions, the assessment in the third position (i.e. after a question-answer sequence) is absent, and instead there is a pause as the doctor moves on to the next question. Antaki (2002) has also noted that certain high grade assessments such as *Brilliant* or *Lovely* can come after a sequence-closing third as additional proof for the person producing it that the sequence is closed before a new sequence of talk is initiated. Concerning assessments in the third position in other languages, Mondada (2009a) showed that *ah* / 'Oh' + assessment in French in a final position can also close down a sequence of talk.

To illustrate how assessments are used in the third position in English, we can look at the example below, taken from Schegloff (2007: 124). Here Ava and Bea are talking about how they both are doing:

Figure 4.13

(7.09) TG, 1:26-37

- | | | | |
|---|---|------|--|
| | 1 | Ava: | [·hh] How'v you bee:n |
| | 2 | Bee: | ·hh <u>Oh</u> :: survi:ving I guess, hh[h! |
| → | 3 | Ava: | [That's good,= |
| | 4 | | =how's (Bob), |
| | 5 | Bee: | <u>He</u> 's fine, |
| → | 6 | Ava: | <u>Tha</u> ::t's goo:d, |
| | 7 | Bee: | °(Bu::t.) =/°(Goo:d.)= |
| | 8 | Bee: | = 'n how's school going. |
| | 9 | Ava: | <u>Oh</u> s:ame old shit |

In the above conversation, Ava produces a FPP that is a personal state inquiry about Bee's well-being in line 1. Bee answers the question with a corresponding SPP in line 2. Upon hearing Bee's response, Ava then in line 3 positively assesses Bee's response. Following her positive assessment, Ava then considers the sequence to be closed since she produces a new FPP in line 4 inquiring about the well-being of Bob. Bee orients to this new sequence as well since she

produces the appropriate SPP in line 5 stating how Bob is doing. Again, as in the first sequence, Ava positively assesses Bee's SPP in line 6, and they both orient to the sequence being complete after this sequence-closing third. Accordingly, Bee reiterates the well-being of Bob in line 8 and then produces a new FPP in line 9 that starts a new sequence of talk. Once both co-participants have oriented to the potential closing of the current sequence as being indeed complete, a new sequence can be initiated with a corresponding new FPP.

Now that an overview of assessments has been given, I will discuss two examples of assessments in the sequence-closing third position in French. As was noted above, there is a polarity for assessments, as there are both positive and negative assessments (Clayman 1998)). In order to illustrate this polarity, I will first present and analyze a positive sequence-closing third position assessment, and then a negative sequence-closing third position assessment.

Figure 4.14 Positive Assessment

10032403 26:38 – 26:51

- 01 S: et donc quels sont les thèmes que tu as ↑?
and so what are the themes that you have ↑?
and so what are the topics that you're covering ↑?
- 02 N: oui ben en fait il y a un groupe
yes well in fact it there has a group
yeah well in fact there's a group
- 03 c'est pratiquement les mêmes thèmes
It is practically the same themes
it's practically the same topics
- 04 uh hh c'est les mêmes thèmes qu'il y avait sur cette fiche
uh hh it is the same themes that it there had on that sheet
uh hh it's the same topics that were on that sheet
- > 05 S: Wow !
Wow !
Wow !
- 06 N: Donc c'est assez rigolo ouais hah
So it is rather funny yeah hah
So it's rather funny yeah hah

Figure 4.14 (cont'd)

07 S: °ahhh°
 °ahhh°
 °ahhh°

In the above example, Nathalie has been talking about her first week of teaching a French conversation class and how the students selected the themes/topics for the course from a document given to her that was used in a previous course by a different teacher. Sylvie asks her about the topics and themes. In line 1, Sylvie asks Nathalie what are the topics that she will discuss this semester. In line 2, Nathalie begins her response with a remembering *Oui ben en fait* / ‘Yeah well in fact’ and then through line 3 proceeds to say that there is a group of themes that are the same. In line 4, Nathalie engages in a word search for the word *c’est* / ‘it’s’ before finishing her response that the themes or topics for her class are the same as those on a sheet given to her by another teacher. In line 5, Sylvie produces a positive assessment *Wow!* with rising intonation in response to Nathalie’s response. In line 6, Nathalie orients to Sylvie’s follow-up surprised assessment and says that is indeed funny that the themes are similar. In line 7, Sylvie produces a soft change of state token (Heritage 1984) °ahhh° / ‘°ohhh°’ from not-knowing to knowing about how the situation is funny for Nathalie.

Figure 4.15 Negative assessment

10032403 0:00 – 0:14

((This is from the very beginning of the phone call; Sylvie inquires about Nathalie’s well-being, and Nathalie explains she still has a hoarse voice.))

01 ((Telephone rings))
 02 S: Allô ?
 Hello?
 Hello?
 03 (.)

Figure 4.15 (cont'd)

04 N: Allô Sylvie ↑ ?
Hello Sylvie ↑ ?
Hello Sylvie ↑?

05 S: Salut Nathalie !
Hey Nathalie !
Hey Nathalie !

06 Comment vas-tu[: ?
How go yo [:u ?
How are yo [:u ?

07 N: [Sa°lu:t°
[H°e:y°
[H°e:y°

08 Ça va ça va.
It goes it goes
Not bad not bad

09 Je:: ((clears throat))
I:: ((clears throat))
I:: ((clears throat))

10 j'ai toujours la voix enrouée comme d'habitude oui.
I have always the voice hoarse like of usual yes
Yeah I still have a hoarse voice like usual

-> 11 S: Oh mi:ince!
Oh sho:ot!
Oh sho:ot!

12 N: Si.
Yeah
Yep

In this second example, taken from the beginning of a phone call, Nathalie is calling Sylvie to discuss how things have been going for her since they last spoke before the winter vacation. In lines 1-2, there is the summons-answer sequence with the summons in line 1 and Sylvie answering the phone in line 2. There is a brief pause in line 3. The identification and greeting happen in lines 4-5 with Nathalie producing a voice-sample, thereby introducing herself in line 4 and Sylvie then greeting Nathalie once she confirms that it is indeed Nathalie (after she recognizes Nathalie's voice) in line 5. In line 6, Sylvie inquires about Nathalie's well-being with

Comment vas-tu? / ‘How are you?’ that overlaps with Nathalie’s greeting *Salut* / ‘Hey’ in line 7. In line 8, Nathalie begins explaining how she is feeling with *Ça va ça va* / ‘Not bad not bad.’ In line 9, Nathalie starts to elaborate on her well-being by saying *Je* / ‘I’ before clearing her throat. In line 10, she continues by saying that she still has a hoarse voice as usual. In line 11, Sylvie produces the negative assessment *Oh mi:nce!* / ‘Oh sho:ot!’ in response to Nathalie’s ongoing health problem. This negative assessment is a composite expression with the *Oh* which is being used as a means to convey emotion and the *mi:nce* / ‘Sho:ot’ representing the negative assessment of Nathalie’s health. This particular *Oh* is not the same as *Ah* described above, which was used as a cognitive change of state token, similar to the *Oh* in English (Heritage 1984). The *Oh* in this example is used instead as an affective change of state token, such as an assessment or to convey emotion. Additionally, in other examples from the corpus, the French *Oh* was used primarily to show an affective change of state, and the *Ah* was used to show a cognitive change of state. This is similar to what Golato (2012) found with different particles in German, with *ach* representing a cognitive change of state, and *oh* representing an affective change of state. With this negative assessment, Sylvie is taking the stance that she is concerned for Nathalie’s good health and well-being. In line 12, Nathalie confirms that she still has a hoarse voice with *Si* / ‘Yes’ (an affirmative response to a negative statement or question).

Through these two different types of assessments, we can see that they function similarly to assessments on states of affairs in other languages. In summary, then, it is important to note that assessments occur when co-participants are evaluating some event or person in their talk (Goodwin & Goodwin 1987). Additionally, as Pomerantz (1984) notes, assessments are a way for co-participants to share the topic of conversation and each have a stake in the topic being discussed, whether or not they assess the event or person in a similar way. Schegloff (2007)

mentions that assessments in the third position show a stance taken up by the person who produced the FPP (e.g. the question) for a particular sequence of talk. Sacks (1975) calls these assessments part of a “personal state inquiry” where the co-participants discuss the state of affairs for various people or events. Additionally, as Clayman (1998) points out, there is a polarity for assessments, ranging from positive to negative assessments. With French, as in English, we can see that the assessments in the third position do close down a sequence of talk. Once the assessment has been proffered, the co-participants consider the talk complete and move on to a new topic. There is also a polarity of assessments, ranging from positive to negative, as illustrated in the two examples above.

4.4.6 Composites

Concerning another category of sequence-closing thirds, there is the possibility of finding combinations of utterances together that move to close down a particular sequence. Schegloff (2007) points out that there will normally not be any more than two tokens together within any one combination. Examples of composites in American English frequently include *Oh okay* and *Oh good* amongst others. Within each composite token, each single token has a function. That is, composites are turns of talk in which each element “responds to something different in the prior talk” (Liddicoat 2007: 194). In the example below from Schegloff (2007: 131) the composite expression *Oh good* is used to close down the sequence in which Deb is talking about her failure to send a baby gift to a cousin:

Figure 4.16

(7.22) Pre-Party, 11:23-30

- 1 Deb: [I don't think I ever sent M]arcia
 2 a birth- a present for her baby did I?=or did we buy
 3 something t'gether
 4 (0.3)
 5 Deb: Mo:m,
 6 Ann: Yeah I think we di:d.
 → 7 Deb: Oh:, good.
 8 (1.2)

In lines 1-3 in the above example, Deb produces a confirmation check (FPP) in which she wants to confirm whether or not she has already bought a present for her cousin's baby. In line 6 Deb's mother produces the relevant SPP that is a confirmation of Deb's statement that they did indeed buy the baby's present. Upon receiving the confirmation, Deb then produces a sequence-closing third in line 7 that shows she is in the now-knowing state about the purchased gift as well as showing that she is positively assessing the confirmation that her mother has just produced. This combination of change-of-stake token plus an assessment shows that these tokens can be combined in order to close down a particular sequence of talk once the co-participants orient to the sequence being successfully completed.

I will now provide and analyze two examples of frequently occurring composites in French. The first example contains the composite *OK d'accord*/ 'OK all right' (see Figure 4.21) and the second example contains the composite *Ah OK d'accord*/ 'Oh ok all right' (see Figure 4.22). With this second composite example, it is interesting to point out that it consists of three items. It is interesting to note the difference between French and what Schegloff (2007) said about composites being made up of two items in English. In the first example below, Sylvie and Nathalie have been talking about available summer teaching positions at their university; Sylvie has explained that their academic unit will e-mail out applications for the summer positions; Nathalie then asks when the email will be sent out.

Figure 4.17

10032403 01:20:17 – 01:20:29

- 01 N: Et on envoie l'e-mail uhh jour uhjh juste avant la fin du
 And one sends the email uhh day uhjh just before the end of the
And they send out the email uhh around uhjh just before the of the
- 02 semestre ou: ?
 semester o:r ?
semester o:r ?
- 03 S: Non je crois que c'est uhh au grand mois de mars.
 No I believe that it is uhh to big month of March
No I believe that it's uhh roughly in the month of March
- 04 [j'ens-]
 [I'of]
 [I'm]
- >05 N: [OK °d'accord°]
 [OK °of agreement°]
 [OK °all right°]
- 06 S: Je me souviens plus exactement mais uh c'est quelque
 I myself remember neg. exactly but uh it is some
I no longer remember exactly but uh it's some
- 07 chose comme mars.
 thing like March.
thing like March.

In line 1, Nathalie begins to produce a confirmation check about when the academic unit will send out the e-mail with the job application. She also engages in two different word searches, first for the word *jour*/ 'day' and then *juste* / 'just.' In line 2, she finishes her confirmation check before dropping out. In line 3, Sylvie responds by saying that the academic unit will send out the e-mail in March. Sylvie also engages in a word search for the word *au*/ 'to/at.' In line 4, Sylvie continues to speak but drops out. She also overlaps with Nathalie, who in line 5 produces the composite expression *OK d'accord*/ 'Ok all right.' With this composite, the *Ok* acknowledges the receipt of new information and the *d'accord* represents an acceptance of the information provided by Sylvie. In lines 6-7 Sylvie continues with her explanation saying

the unit will most likely mail out the application sometime in March. In line 6, Sylvie also engages in a word search for the word *c'est*/ 'it's' before proceeding with her telling.

Figure 4.18

10032403 55 :42 – 55 :51

In this next example, Sylvie has just described how she goes to either one of the two campus gyms depending on their schedules. Nathalie asks her if she has a membership card for the gym.

- 01 N: Donc tu as une carte de me:mbre ?
 So you have a card of me:mber ?
 So you have a me:mbership card?
- 02 S: Pas du to[ut avec la car]te la carte d'étudiant c'est gratuit
 Not of a [ll with the car]d the card of student it is free
 Not at a [ll with the car]d the student ID it's free
- 03 N: [C'est payant ?]
 [It is paying ?]
 [You have to pay?]
- > 04 N: Ah OK d'accord
 Ah OK of agreement
 Ah OK all right
- 05 S: Ce qui est payant c'est si tu veux suivre un cours
 It who is paying it is if you want to follow a class
 You have to pay if you want to take a class

In line 1, Nathalie produces the confirmation check about whether or not Sylvie has a membership card for the gym. In line 2, Sylvie explains that she does not have a membership card because the gym is free when one has a student ID card. In line 3, Nathalie produces another confirmation check that overlaps with Sylvie's explanation in line 2. In line 4, Sylvie produces the composite response *Ah OK d'accord*/ 'Oh ok all right' upon receiving this new information. In Sylvie's explanation, there are two pieces of information (i.e. that she doesn't have a membership card and that the gym is free with a student ID), and Nathalie's composite response therefore responds to each of these pieces of information. That is, the *Ah* / 'Oh' receipts the information in its entirety, as it is a change of state token (Heritage 1984) where Nathalie is

going from uninformed to informed. The *OK* then accepts one piece of information, which is that one does not need a membership card. Additionally, the *D'accord* acknowledges the receipt of the second piece of information that the gym is free with a student ID. Here, then, we see that each component of the composite token responds to a different part of the previous talk (Liddicoat 2007). In line 5, Sylvie continues her explanation that one must pay to take a class at the gym.

In summary, then, we can see that composites in French function the same way as they do in American English. First, they are comprised of at least two tokens (Schegloff 2007). Next, we see that each token in the composite response addresses a different piece of information in the prior talk (Liddicoat 2007), such as the *Oh good* in the American English example above where *Oh* is a change of state token following and the *good* is a positive assessment of knowing the confirmation. Similarly, in French with *OK d'accord* and *Ah OK d'accord*, we see that each token acknowledges the receipt of new information.

4.4.7 Topicalization

Another category of third position responses to consider is that of topicalization. Contrary to other third position responses that primarily close down a sequence of talk, it will be seen that topicalization can actually expand a sequence of talk. I will first start with a general description of topicalization as it occurs in conversation and then move on to the specific category of how topicalization can occur when a possible completion of a topic is initiated. First off, co-participants in talk do not bring up a random topic at any given time; it is held off until it can occur naturally (Schegloff & Sacks 1973). When people who are familiar with each other discuss different topics, they tend to rely on shared stock information (Maynard & Zimmerman 1984). Even when co-participants are not previously acquainted with one another, the way in which a

topic is initiated or discussed is still negotiated and closely monitored by the speakers (West & Garcia 1988). Within topicalization, Schegloff (2007) notes that a co-participant may use his or her turn to mark a previous utterance as having interest that warrants further on-topic talk. The process by which co-participants orient to prior talk warranting further talk “is achieved by imbedding some item from the previous turn in the next-turn topic shift” (Boden & Biebley 1986: 83). That is, a topic in talk is negotiated over the course of several turns of talk and is “interactionally and mutually organized” (Button & Casey 1989). Sequentially speaking, topicalization⁴ can generally occur in three different ways: 1) when conversation openings are produced, 2) where a prior topic shut-down has been accomplished, and 3) where conversation closings have been initiated (Button & Casey 1985). Specifically, forms of topicalization within talk include repeats or partial repeats, and “really” which may or may not be accompanied by the token “oh” (Schegloff 2007). Additionally, in institutional talk such as doctor-patient interactions, multiple topics to be discussed by the patient are brought up in the form of announcements by the patients (Campion & Langdon 2004). Furthermore, laughter has been found as a way to control topic selection in multiparty talk as a way to avoid disagreement (McKinlay & McVittie 2006).

With regard to closing down a topic of talk, figurative or idiomatic expressions are used when a co-participant is summarizing a topic in a turn of talk before initiating to close the topic (Drew & Holt 2005; Drew & Holt 1998). Schegloff (2007) also notes that these forms are

⁴ Aside from topicalization, there are also two somewhat related categories: stepwise topic transition and topical pivots in talk. With regards to stepwise topic transition, the producer of potential trouble talk (i.e. a delicate topic) will do a disjunctive action, such as bring up ancillary matters related to the trouble source to move the talk away from the potentially troublesome talk and thus close it down (Jefferson 1984b). In the case of topical pivots, a sort of transition or bridge that is related to the prior talk is made that also allows for a related but independent topic to be initiated (Drew & Holt 2005).

located after the base SPP in order to begin a post-expansion that will continually be shaped and oriented to in the talk of the co-participants.

In the example below showing topicalization, taken from Schegloff (2007: 156-57), Mark is visiting the dormitory of Sherry, Karen, and Ruthie:

Figure 4.19

(7.42) SN-4, 1:01-2:10

32 Mar: ·hh What about the outside candlelight routine izzat
 33 still gonna go on?
 34 She: No yih can't have outside candlelight it's a fi:re
 35 hazard.
 36 (0.5)
 → 37 Mar: Oh really?
 38 (·)
 39 She: Yes[: : .]
 40 Kar: [C'n have] it insi:de,
 41 (0.8)
 42 Mar: You c'd have 'm inside though?
 43 Kar: Yeah
 44 (0.4)
 45 She: Yeh but who wants t'get married inside in the
 46 middle a' the summer when it's still light till
 47 n[line o'clock.]
 48 Mar: [Gunnuh be beau]tiful outsi:de.
 49 (0.2)
 50 She: Ye:ah.
 51 Mar: W'll (jat'll) jus' be fanta:astic.

In the above example, the sequence containing the instance of topicalization begins at line 32 in which Mark produces the FPP asking about the outdoor candlelight routine for Sherry's upcoming wedding. Prior to line 32 Mark has come into Sherry and Ruthie's dorm room to talk about Sherry's upcoming marriage and has asked about the wedding venue. Following Sherry's SPP directed to Mark in line 34, Mark then produces the topicalization "oh really?" located at line 37. Other work has also focused on the "oh really" token in talk. Work by Wilkinson and Kitinger (2006) has also explored variants of the 'oh' token occurring when recipients are surprised by the previous talk. This topicalization expands the sequence after the base SPP in line

34 as the co-participants are now discussing in more detail the outdoor candlelight for the wedding and how it will be problematic due to fire hazards. This particular post-expansion is carried on throughout the rest of the corresponding sequence as the co-participants positively assess the outdoor wedding that will be taking place.

With regard to topicalization in other languages, work by Clift and Helani (2010) has shown that speakers of Levantine (i.e. Syrian) Arabic employ the Religious invocation *inshallah*/ ‘God willing’ to secure a possible topic and sequence closure. In German, Selting (1996) has found in German data that the “oh really” token warranted topicalization of the previous utterance. With regard to Swedish, co-participants, like in English, will refer to something from a prior turn in a current turn when making reference to it. That is, the pronoun *de*/ ‘it’ is used as a referent to a lexical item from a previous turn that is still being discussed in the current turn of talk (Melander & Sahlström 2009). Additionally, for Swedish, it has been shown that in the institutional setting of a business meeting, non-agenda topics may be raised by co-participants asking questions relating to other topics not on the scheduled agenda (Svennevig 2012).

I will now proceed to discuss two different examples of topicalization in French. In the first example below, Serge, Fabiola, and Roger have been talking about a wedding that Serge attended the day before. The groom’s family is of Arabic origin and the wife’s family is of traditional French origin. Fabiola asks Serge another question about the wedding.

Figure 4.20

M2U00006 19:30 – 19:46

- 1 F: c'est un mariage qui est même uhh
it is a marriage who is even uhh
it's a marriage that's even uhh
- 2 (3.0)
- 3 F: C'est pas c'est un mariage mélan métissé? Ou uh c'est?
It is neg. it is a marriage mi- mixed ? Or uh it is?
It's not it's a mi- mixed marriage? Or uhh is it?
- 4 R: Ooo () sans::
Ooo () withou::t
Ooo () withou::t
- 5 F: Y avait pas mal de musique ehh ?
There had neg. bad of music ehh ?
There was a lot of music ehh ?
- 6 S: Il y avait plusieurs nationalités
It there had several nationalities
There were several nationalities
- 7 F: °Ah bon° ?
°Ah good°?
°Oh really° ?
- 8 S: Marocaine, tunisien, syrienne, américaine
Moroccan, Tunisian, Syrian, American
Moroccan, Tunisian, Syrian, American

In line 1, Fabiola begins to produce a confirmation check about the various backgrounds of people at the wedding before engaging in a word search and dropping out. In line 2, there is a 3 second pause as Fabiola is most likely waiting for Serge to pick up the talk and explain the backgrounds of people at the wedding. In line 3, Fabiola begins to rephrase her confirmation check about the wedding and engages in two word searches: the first for the noun *mariage* / 'marriage' and then the corresponding adjective *métissé* / 'mixed.' She finishes her turn by again rephrasing the confirmation check a third time by asking *Ou uh c'est?* / 'Or uh is it?' In line 4, Roger produces *ooo () sans::* / 'ooo () withou::t' before dropping out. In line 5, Fabiola again

produces another version of her confirmation to ask if there was a lot of music. In line 6, Serge confirms that there were several different nationalities present at the wedding. In line 7, Fabiola produces the topicalization token *Ah bon?* ‘Oh really?’ which is comprised of the two tokens “oh” and “really” and which according to Schegloff (2007) can make up a topicalization of the prior talk. In line 8, Serge orients to this topicalization and further explains the specific nationalities that were present at the wedding, including people of Moroccan, Tunisian, Syrian, and American backgrounds.

In the next example, Sylvie is on the telephone with her grandmother, Claude, telling her grandmother what she has been doing during her winter vacation in the United States. Sylvie’s grandmother asks her about a recent visit she had with her boyfriend’s family.

Figure 4.21

100112801 8 :45 – 8:59

- 01 C: Et vous êtes allés ↑ vous êtes allés chez les parents de Robert ↑ ?
 And you are went ↑ you are went at parents of Robert ↑ ?
And you went ↑ you went to Robert’s parents’ house ↑ ?
- 02 S: Oui: tout à fait
 Ye:s all to fact
Ye:s exactly
- 03 S: [On a]
 [One has]
 [We did]
 []
- > 04 C: [Oh be]n dis donc
 [Oh we]ll say therefore
 [Oh we]ll you don’t say
- 05 S: On a fait je sais pas combien d’heures de de voiture
 One has made I know neg. how many of hours of of car
I don’t know how many hours we were in the the car
- 06 C: Ah oui
 Ah yes
Ah yeah
- 07 S: J’en peux plus
 I in can more
I can’t take any more

Figure 4.21 (cont'd)

- 08 S: Ça on met six heures et demie de route pour aller chez ses parents
That one puts six hours and half of route for to go at his parents
It takes six and a half hours to go to his parents' house
- 09 C: Oh là là ↑
 Oh there there ↑
 Oh wow ↑

In line 1, Claude produces the confirmation check as to whether or not Sylvie went to her boyfriend Robert's parents' house. Claude also engages in a word search for the preposition *chez*/ 'at the house of' in line 1. In line 2, Sylvie confirms that she and Robert indeed went to Robert's parents' house. In line 3, Sylvie starts to explain the trip before dropping out. This overlaps with Claude's talk in line 4 of *Oh ben dis donc* / 'Oh well you don't say' which warrants further discussing of the topic at hand. In line 5, Sylvie orients to this as an opportunity to further the discussion as she explains they spent an undeterminable amount of time in the car driving to the family's house. In line 6, Claude acknowledges the receipt of this new information with an *ah oui*/ 'oh yeah' with the "oh" signifying a state change from not-knowing to now-knowing (Heritage 1984) and the "yeah" representing the receipt of the new information. In line 7, Sylvie makes the assessment that she cannot take any more of the traveling and then elaborates on why in line 8, saying that it took six and a half hours by car to get to Robert's parents' house. In line 9, Claude orients to this explanation with surprise and produces *Oh là là* 'Oh wow' with rising intonation. To summarize topicalization, then, we can say choosing a topic and discussing it further occurs naturally between co-participants and does not happen randomly at any given time (Schegloff & Sacks 1973). When people who are familiar with each other discuss different topics, they tend to rely on shared stock information (Maynard & Zimmerman 1984). Even when co-participants are not previously acquainted with one another, the way in which a topic is initiated or discussed is still negotiated and closely monitored by the speakers

(West & Garcia 1988). Within topicalization, Schegloff (2007) says that a co-participant may use his or her turn to mark a previous utterance as having interest that warrants further on-topic talk. The process by which co-participants orient to prior talk warranting further talk “is achieved by imbedding some item from the previous turn in the next-turn topic shift” (Boden & Bieibly 1986: 83). That is, a topic in talk is negotiated over the course of several turns of talk and is “interactionally and mutually organized” (Button & Casey 1989). Specifically, forms of topicalization within talk include repeats or partial repeats, and “really” which may or may not be accompanied by the token “oh” (Schegloff 2007). For topicalization in the third position, these forms are located after the base SPP in order to begin a post-expansion that will continually be shaped and oriented to in the talk of the co-participants (Schegloff 2007).

4.5 Conclusion

This chapter started out with a brief overview of how a conversational sequence is structured. The next section discussed was expansion, and then the majority of the chapter focused on one major type of expansion: a type of post expansion called sequence-closing thirds. In each of the sections, prior research on English and other languages were discussed, before the findings of the empirical study on French was presented. Specifically, the chapter gave an overview of various third position categories that occur in French. The main focus has been on the following sequence-closing thirds: *oh*, *okay*, *d'accord* / ‘okay’ or ‘all right,’ *oui/ouais* ‘yes/yeah,’ assessments, composites, and topicalization. As was pointed out in the introduction, these sequence-closing thirds in particular were chosen since they were included in the teaching unit of the second part of the dissertation. They were chosen because they were the most frequently occurring in the French NS corpus.

In the analysis of the above sequence-closing thirds, it can be seen that they all serve as a way to close down, or move to close down, a particular sequence of talk, with the exception of topicalization which actually expands the sequence. This phenomenon holds true for all the aforementioned sequence-closing thirds, regardless of the language of the co-participants who produce them.

First, for the token *oh*, it can be seen that *ah*/‘oh’ in French functions as a change of state token, similar to American-English (Heritage 1984), German (Betz & Golato 2008, Golato & Betz 2008, Golato 2010), and Japanese (Mori 2006). That is, the co-participant who produces the *ah* in French goes from a not-knowing to knowing state upon receipt of the information. For example, in line 3 in Figure 4.8 above, Roger produces the *ah*/‘oh’ token once he learns what Kevin would like for dinner on Thursday. The *ah* third position token in French also actually expands the sequence of talk instead of moving to close down the sequence, as seen in lines 3 and 15 in Figure 4.10. Additionally, the *ah* token can come in the form of a composite, such as *ah oui*/‘oh yeah,’ which is similar to English (Schegloff 2007). Next, for the category *okay*, *Ok* and *D’accord* in the third position in French play similar roles to that of “okay” in American English (Guthrie 1997, Schegloff 2007) and German (Barske 2009). That is, in French, both of these tokens serve as an acknowledgement of new information that comes in the second position following a question in the first position. As seen in Figure 4.10 above, the token *ok* in French acknowledges the receipt of new information, such as when Valérie acknowledges the receipt of new information from Molly following a question she asked. The same holds true for *d’accord* / ‘all right’ in Figure 4.11 when Sylvie acknowledges the receipt of new information from Nathalie following a question she had asked. These findings confirm that the tokens *ok* and *d’accord* function similarly to their counterparts in English and German. Concerning the

category of *oui* / 'yes' and 'yeah,' these tokens occur in French when the recipient acknowledges or confirms the receipt of the prior utterance(s) by the co-participant who produced it, just as *yes* and *yeah* do in English (Drummond & Hopper 1993, Jefferson 1984). That is, with regard to *oui* or *ouais* in the third position, this token acknowledges or confirms the information in the SPP in response to the question in the FPP. As seen in Figure 4.12 above, the *ouais* / 'yeah' produced by Nathalie in line 15 acknowledges the new information from Sylvie. Additionally, the *ouais* produced here also functions as a continuer, similar to *yeah* in English (Jefferson 1984) and *ja* / 'yeah' in Dutch (Mazeland 1990). That is, the *ouais* in the third position serves as a continuer when the second pair part (SPP) is not necessarily made relevant by a first pair part (FPP) and does not necessarily require a confirmation or acknowledgement, similar to 'yeah' in English and *ja* / 'yeah' in Dutch..

Concerning assessments in French, it was shown that they occur when co-participants are evaluating some event in their talk, such as the topics for a class, or person, such as Nathalie's well-being. These third position assessments in French show a particular stance taken by the producer of the FPP (i.e. question) after receiving the response. This is similar to the roles of assessments in American English (Goodwin & Goodwin 1987, Schegloff 2007). Additionally, there are both positive and negative assessments in French, as seen in the two examples above. This is another similarity to assessments in English (Clayman 1988). Furthermore with French, as in English, we can see that the assessments in the third position do close down a sequence of talk. Once the assessment has been proffered, the co-participants consider the talk complete and move on to a new topic.

With regard to composites, we can see that composites in French function the same way as they do in American English. Composites in French can be comprised of at least two tokens,

such as *Ok d'accord* / 'Ok all right' or else three tokens, such as *Ah OK d'accord* / 'Oh OK all right.' This is somewhat similar to English where composites may be composed of at least but no more than two tokens (Schegloff 2007). Additionally, each token in the composite response addresses a different piece of information in the prior talk. That is, with the composites *OK d'accord* and *Ah OK d'accord*, we see that each token acknowledges the receipt of new information. For example, with the *Ah OK d'accord*, we see the *Ah* / 'Oh' acknowledging a change of state and the *Ok* and *d'accord* / 'All right' each accepting a new piece of information. This is another similarity with composites in English (Liddicoat 2007).

To summarize topicalization in the third position in French, we can say it occurs after a question (FPP) and then a SPP in which information has been given on a topic. The French-speaking co-participant producing the token in the third position has oriented to the SPP as warranting further talk and then allows the producer of the SPP to continue on with the explanation or telling. This is similar to English (Schegloff 2007) and other languages (Clift & Helani 2010, Melander & Sahlström 2009, Selting 1996). The make-up of the topicalization token in French, such as *Ah bon* / 'Oh really,' is similar to what Schegloff (2007) has said for the English token; that is, it may contain an "oh" and "really."

All of the above third position responses (i.e. oh, *okay*, *d'accord* / 'okay' or 'all right,' *oui/ouais* 'yes/yeah,' assessments, composites, and topicalization) were the most frequently occurring in my French native speaker corpus. They were therefore used in the teaching unit for the next part of the dissertation project. This next part entails a lesson plan attempting to teach these specific third position responses to beginning learners of French to see how successfully the learners can incorporate the responses into their conversational repertoires. The motivation behind selecting these particular third position responses is that they are the most frequently

occurring in the corpus of naturally occurring talk, and are therefore ones that the learners would most likely encounter in interactions with French native speakers. For this lesson using third position responses, the learners will be presented with audio and video samples of naturally occurring talk from French native speakers containing the third position responses during a class period. During this lesson, they will be given opportunities to practice using the third position responses. Then, three days later, the learners will be recorded in conversations to see how well they can use and retain the third position responses in their interactions.

Chapter 5: A Study of the Acquisition of Pragmatics in Learners of French

5.1 Overview

This chapter reports on the development, execution, and results of a study involving a teaching unit that I conducted in July 2011. The primary objective of this study was to assess the acquisition of pragmatics in learners of French while they were in the language classroom. Specifically, the study used a role-play task to look at how effectively learners enrolled in a beginning French class were able to incorporate certain third position responses in French (i.e., those taken from the French NS corpus described in the last chapter) into their conversational repertoires⁵ The chapter begins with how and why pragmatics should be taught in the language classroom. Next, the different components of the chapter are discussed in the following order: the development of the study materials, the three phases (i.e., pre-task phase, task phase, post-task phase) and their corresponding results, followed by the conclusion.

5.2 The Teaching of Pragmatics

Native speakers of any given language acquire pragmatic knowledge of that language via interactions with fellow speakers of the language. On the other hand, classroom learners of a language are in need of extra help and support to enhance their communicative competence in the language (Ellis 2003). A major way to help learners of a language increase their communicative competence is through the use of speaking tasks in the classroom. During such

⁵. Given that the study centered on the acquisition of verbal third position responses by learners, this study did not focus on the production or use of non-verbal third position responses such as gestures by the subjects. To account for the use of gestures, however, a brief summary of how they were used by subjects in the pre-task and post-task phases will be given.

tasks, learners role-play cultural situations (such as buying food at the market or purchasing train tickets) that they are likely to encounter in the target culture (Ellis 2003).

While language teachers want to see their students master a language well enough to interact successfully in the target culture, many may wonder if devoting precious classroom time to such activities is worth it, especially for beginning language learners. Previous work has shown in fact that foreign language learners, even at the beginning level, are able to successfully acquire pragmatic knowledge through classroom activities (Huth 2007; Huth & Taleghani-Nikazm 2006; Kasper 1997, 1992). My study therefore follows in the debate of the acquisition of pragmatics. Specifically, my study attempted to carry out a project similar to that of Huth (2007) in which beginning learners of German were taught how to sound more native-like in conversation with a lesson plan and speaking activities that used naturally occurring talk from German NS.

Similar to Huth (2007), my study attempted to teach beginning learners of French how to sound more native-like via a teaching unit that used a role-play speaking task and that incorporated naturalistic talk from French NS. A major component of both studies is the development of pedagogically appropriate materials that use naturalistic data from native speakers. The materials need to be developed and presented in such a way that learners need to first situate the pragmatic knowledge in their first language and then apply in to the language that they are learning (Huth 2007). When attempting to teach pragmatics of the second language to learners, it is important that teachers understand how the conversations naturally occur amongst native speakers so that the teacher knows how to convey the interaction strategies accurately to the learners. This is where CA can play an important role in pedagogy. When CA can be used to explain how naturally occurring talk is structured, and in turn be used to develop materials that

teach learners how to speak like the native speakers, teachers can be more confident in their knowledge of how to teach pragmatics. As a result, students will learn more effective conversational strategies in the target language (Wong and Waring 2010). As will be discussed, an ideal way to do this is through the presentation of several conversational contexts, such as a question-answer-follow-up sequence in which there are certain ways that one would normally respond. Thinking about how one does this in one's first language (because it may be taken for granted) allows for a better understanding of how it can be done in the language being studied (Huth 2007). The development, execution, and results of the study will be explained in more detail below.

5.3 Development of Study Materials

This section briefly summarizes the development of the materials that were used by the subjects during the pre-task phase, the task phase, and the post-task phase of the study. This summary is included for the convenience of the reader. The materials used will be discussed by phases to make it easier to keep track of what was used for each phase. For a more detailed discussion, please consult Chapter 3.

5.3.1 Pre-task Materials

For the pre-task phase, taking place a day before the task phase, subjects were provided with two lists of questions (i.e., one list for each partner in the pair). These lists were the review questions for the oral midterm and contained 22 questions pertaining to topics that had been covered in the first four weeks of the French 102 class. For a complete list of the questions used in the pre-task phase, please consult Appendix (A).

5.3.2 Task-phase Materials

The task phase materials were created using the findings of how French native speakers use third position responses. (Please see Chapter 4.) All subjects were provided with a hand-out (see Appendix C) that contained four different activities. The first activity introduced pragmatic appropriateness in English to the subjects. The second activity instructed learners how to use French third position responses (positive and negative assessments, comprehension checks, surprised responses, and the acknowledgement of new information). The third activity required subjects to associate a particular third position response with its appropriate context. The fourth activity constituted a role-play speaking task in which students paired up. Subjects could either be a tourist asking for directions or a Parisian responding to the question. Pairs were told to switch roles after asking five questions, therefore affording both partners the opportunity to produce a question and later a third position response.

5.3.3 Post-task Materials

The materials for the post-task included the oral exam questions, language background questionnaire, and questionnaire for the post-task phase. The oral exam questions resemble the review questions as they are both based on previously taught topics. Each exam question sheet totaled six questions that one subject asked his/her partner. The language background questionnaire (see Appendix D) asked subjects to provide relevant information on the languages they knew and to what extent. The post-task questionnaire (see Appendix E) required the participants to evaluate and provide feedback on the study as well as to describe their language learning goals.

5.4 Background Information on Subjects

Here I am restating some of the basic facts about the subjects from section 3.2 for the reader's convenience. The subjects were learners in an eight week long beginning level French course during summer 2010. The study started off with ten subjects, divided amongst five pairs.⁶ Following IRB approval, the three parts of the study were explained to the subjects, all of whom agreed to be video recorded. Subjects ranged from 19 to 44 years of age, with the average being 24.2 years, and the median being 22 years. Given that one subject was 44 years old while all others ranged from 19 to 25 years old, this one was an outlier. All subjects reported that their first language was English. In addition to English, two subjects stated that they also spoke Spanish, while one subject reported speaking Cantonese at home.

5.5 Phases of the Study

The study was specifically planned around the oral midterm exam which required learners to get into pairs and have conversations based on questions related to topics covered in the course. This section briefly summarizes the three phases of the study. For a more detailed description, please consult Chapter 3. Accordingly, the study took place during the fourth week of the eight week summer class (i.e. mid-July 2010) when students were preparing for their oral midterm exams. The study consisted of three phases: 1) a pre-task phase that occurred one day before the speaking task, 2) the task phase where students were instructed on how to use third position responses followed by practicing them in a speaking task, and 3) the post-task phase that

⁶ Initially, there were 10 subjects who agreed to participate in the study who were then divided into five pairs. Due to an unforeseen interference during the post-task phase, one of the pairs had to be removed from the overall analysis. However, this pair will be discussed individually apart from the others.

occurred three days later where students used the third position responses during conversations for their oral midterm exams. Each phase and its corresponding results will be discussed in more detail below.

5.5.1 Pre-task Phase

The pre-task phase occurred one day before the task phase. Each pair was given a set of 22 practice questions for the oral midterm exam that covered topics from the class (see Appendix A). Pairs were instructed to have a conversation in which co-participants asked one another questions and, obtained appropriate responses. Instructions asked subjects to switch roles after 10 questions, to allow each subject a chance to ask a question and then respond to one. There were 22 probable slots for co-participants to use a third position, for a total of 110 slots across all pairs. The results for each pair's performance during the pre-task phase are discussed below. Following the discussion of each pair's performance, a representative sample of the talk from this phase of the study will be presented and analyzed. It should be pointed out here that all the learner transcripts below (both for pre-task phase and post-task phase) were written to render the pronunciation of the subjects.

5.5.2 Pre-task Phase Results

For the pre-task phase, each of the five pairs was video recorded having a conversation using the oral midterm exam practice questions. Overall, it was noted that three out of the five pairs had both partners use some type of verbal third position response in their interactions. That is, both members of these three pairs produced some type of third position response such as *oui* / 'yeah', *d'accord* / 'all right' or a positive assessment (*c'est romantique* / 'that's romantic')

during their interactions prior to being explicitly taught how to use them during the task phase. The remaining two pairs had at least one person from the pair use a third position response such as *ok* or the continuer *mmhmm* (Jefferson 1984) in their talk prior to being taught how to explicitly use them. In total, 13 verbal third position responses used across the four pairs was counted during the pre-task interactions⁷. Overall, the majority of verbal third position responses were used correctly by the subjects in the pre-task phase. That is, the third position responses that were already being used by subjects in their interactions (e.g. *d'accord*, *ok*, assessments) prior to the teaching unit (task phase) were pragmatically correct in that they were used in the same way by French native-speakers from the corpus discussed in Chapter 4. The one major exception was the change of state token *oh* in English that is *ah* in French. That is, the subjects produced *oh* in French instead of the appropriate *ah* token that is used by French native speakers. The results for verbal third position responses will now be broken down and explained by individual pairs with a summary of the results listed in Table 5.1 below. Only verbal third position responses were included in the numbers below. Non-verbal third position responses (e.g. nods, hand gestures, etc.) were not included in the total count. A summary of their use will follow in the pre-task summary section.

⁷ Recall that one pair had to be excluded from the overall analysis due to an unforeseen circumstance during the post-task phase. It will be explained separately and will henceforth be called Pair A.

Table 5.1: Number of verbal third position responses by pair in pre-task phase

	<u>Pair 1</u>	<u>Pair 2</u>	<u>Pair 3</u>	<u>Pair 4</u>	Total for pairs 1-4	<u>Pair A</u>
<u>Subject 1</u>	2	0	2	1	5	4
<u>Subject 2</u>	3	2	2	1	8	2
<u>Total</u>	5	2	4	2	13	6

Pair #1

For Pair # 1's pre-task interaction, a total number of five verbal third position responses were used. Subject 1 produced a total of two spoken third position responses, *oh ok oui* / 'oh ok yeah' and the acknowledgement token *mmhmm* (Jefferson 1984). Subject 2 produced the tokens *d'accord*/ 'all right' once and *mmhmm* two times. There were also non-verbal third position responses, nods acknowledging an answer, which were produced as an accompaniment to a *mmhmm* (by Subject 1) or else alone in place of a verbal third position response (by Subject 2). In the following data samples that contain *oh ok oui*/ 'oh ok yeah,' *mmhmm*, and *d'accord*/ 'all right,' they will be presented and analyzed for the appropriate use (or not) of language and the type of sequence that each third position response engenders. For the first example with *oh ok oui* / 'oh ok yeah,' the data sample is below:

Figure 5.1

MAH00060 0:00 – 0:28

- 01 S1: Quelles médias sont indispensables aujourd'hui ?
 What media are indispensable today ?
Which media are essential these days?
- 02 S2: Uhh
- 03 (.)
- 04 S2: Les médias sont indispensables pour moi et uhh
 The media are indispensable for me and uhh
The media (that) are essential for me and uhh
- 05 le téléphone portaboo et l'ordinateur
 the telephone portable and the computer
the cell phone and the computer
- > 06 S1: °oh ok° oui. ((Nods quickly))
 °oh ok° yes.
 °oh ok° yeah.

In line 1, Subject 1 (S1) produces a question about which media are essential today. In line 2, Subject 2 (S2) hesitates. There is a brief pause in line 3, presumably to think of what to say. In line 4, Subject 2 begins to produce a response before engaging in a word search for *le téléphone portaboo et l'ordinateur* / 'cell phone and computer,' which he produces in line 5. In line 6, Subject 1 produces the composite third position response °oh ok oui°/ '°oh ok yeah° in which each part of the token serves a different function (Liddicoat 2007). The *oh* is a change of state token (Heritage 1984) by which Subject 1 moves from a not-knowing to a now-knowing state; the *ok* embodies an acceptance of the answer produced by Subject 2; and the *oui*/ 'yeah' also serves as a confirmation of the receipt of information. There is also a nod that accompanies Subject 1's third position response. For the most part, the language is used correctly in this sequence because the composite token was used in a similar fashion by French native speakers in the corpus from Chapter 4. As was mentioned earlier, the one exception is that Subject 1 produces *oh* (used in English) instead of *ah* (which is used by French native speakers). This

constitutes a transfer from English. As for the type of sequence engendered by this third position response, Subject 1 orients to the sequence being complete as he moves on to a new topic (question) following the *oh ok oui* in line 6 (not displayed).

In the next example, in which Subject 1 asks Subject 2 if he has any problems with modern media, the focus will be on the third position acknowledgement token *mmmhmmm*.

Figure 5.2

MAH 00060 0:58 – 1:54

- 01 S1: Est-ce qu'il y a est-ce qu'il y a des des problèmes
Is it that he there has is it that he there has some some problems
Are there are there any any problems
- 02 avec les nouveaux médias ?
with the new media ?
with contemporary media ?
- 03 (3.0)
- 04 S2: Uhh
- 05 (3.0)
- > 06 S1: Tu comprends ?
You understand?
Do you understand?
- 07 ((S2 nods))
- 08 S1: Oui ?
Yes?
Yeah?
- 09 S2: Oui.
Yes.
Yeah.
- 10 S2: Uhh uhh umm
- 11 (.)
- 12 S2: Je ne sais pas uh
I neg know neg uh
I don't know uh
- 13 (3.0)

Figure 5.2 (cont'd)

14 S2: Umm j'ai uh problèmes avec les novoway médias
 Umm I have uh problems with the new media
Umm I have uh problems with contemporary media

15 (.)

16 S2: Ummm

17 (2.0)

18 S2: Uhh kwand uhh (2.0) Uh je ne sais
 Uhh when uhh (2.0) Uh I neg know neg
Uhh when uhh (2.0) When I don't know (am not familiar with)

19 S2: pas le média ((Makes chopping motion with his hands))
 the media
the media

-> 20 S1: mmmhmmmm.

21 S2: Ummmm

22 (.)

23 S2: Uhh ooh (2.0) c'est difi
 Uhh o:r (2.0) it is diff
Uhh o:r (2.0) it's diff

24 S2: o quand c'est difficile
 or when it is difficult
or when it's difficult (to use)

-> 25 S1: mmmhmmmm.

In this next example, Subject 1 begins to produce another question in line 1 before engaging in a word search for the item *problèmes* / 'problems' as evidenced by the repeat of the article and then completes the question in line 2. In line 3 there is a pause of three seconds as Subject 2 does not immediately produce a response. This silence already foreshadows some problem with the answer. In line 4, Subject 2 produces the hesitation marker *Uhh* which is immediately followed by another three second pause in line 5. Subject 1 orients to the silences as comprehension difficulties and other-initiates repair with an understanding check *Tu comprends?*

/ ‘Do you understand?’ in line 6. Subject 2 responds affirmatively with a nod in line 7. In line 8, Subject 2 follows up with a confirmation check *Oui?*/ ‘Yeah?’ to make sure that his partner understands the question. Subject 2 confirms that he understands the question by producing a *Oui*/ ‘Yeah’ in line 9 and then produces the hesitation markers *Uhh uhh um* in line 10, presumably as attempts to come up with a response. There is a brief pause in line 11 and then Subject 2 produces a no knowledge claim in line 12 followed by another hesitation marker. Subject 1 is treating this hesitation marker apparently as a sign that Subject 2 may want to continue with his turn, as he is neither producing a response nor is following up with the next question. There is a three second pause yet again at line 13 and in line 14, Subject 2 begins to answer the question followed by a brief pause in line 15. In line 16, Subject 2 hesitates again *Umm* followed by a two second pause at line 17. In line 18, Subject 2 produces another hesitation before and after *kwand (quand)*/ ‘when’ followed by another two second pause. In lines 18-19, Subject 2 completes his response by saying he has problems when he is not familiar with⁸ that type of media. In line 20, Subject 1 orients to this new information and produces the third position continuer *mmhmmm*. In line 21, Subject 2 hesitates in an attempt to further answer the question which is followed by a brief pause. In line 23-24, Subject 2 attempts once more to continue his response and engages in a word search after *ohh*/ ‘or’ before finishing his answer. In line 25, Subject 2 produces another third position acknowledgement *mmmmhmmmm*. Following this second continuer, Subject 1 orients to the sequence as being complete as he then moves on to the next topic (question). In this sequence, the third position responses are used correctly for initiating repair on a trouble source (the question) and for confirming receipt of information in an

8 Subject 2 used the wrong verb « to know » in his response. He used “savoir” (to know a fact) whereas he should have used “connaître” (to be familiar with).

answer. The type of sequence that is engendered by these various third position responses is an expansion of the sequence (Schegloff 2007) with the first third position response used for repair; next the sequence continues as the first continuer is produced; finally the sequence is closed down as the second *mmmmhmmmm* is produced and the speaker considers the sequence complete.

In the example below, in which subject 2 asks Subject 1 about talking on the phone, the focus will be on the third position acknowledgement token *d'accord* / 'all right.'

Figure 5.3

MAH00060 3 :38 – 4 :38

- 01 S2: Est-ce que tu: est-ce que tu parles
Is it that you: is it that you speak
Do you: do you speak
- 02 parles souvent a téléphone? avec °qui°?
speak often to telephone? with °who°?
often speak on the phone? With whom?
- 03 S1: Oui je parlay souvent au téléphone.
Yes I speak often to the telephone.
Yeah I often speak on the phone.
- 04 uhh je parlay avec ma mère uhh
uhh I speak avec my mom uhh
uhh I speak with my mom uhh
- 05 (.)
- 06 S1: tous les jours parce que: uhhe elle (.)
all the days becau:se uhhe she (.)
everyday becau:se uhhe she (.)
- 07 S1: uhh me com me composez mon numero de téléphone
uhh me com me compose my number of telephone
uh my dia my dials my phone number
- 08 uhh je parle aussi avec mes amis uhh↓ (2.0)
uhh I speak also with my friends uhh↓ (2.0)
uhh I also speak with my friends uhh↓ (2.0)

Figure 5.3 (cont'd)

09S1: *parlez à parlez les politiques et et* (2.0)
 speak to speak the politics and and (2.0)
 talk to (about) talk the (about) politics and and (2.0)

10S1: *Uh parlez ummm nos días*((Spanish)) *Nos uh no* (.) *uh uh nos diá uh*
 Uh speak ummm our days ((Spanish)) *Our uh ou* (.)*uh uh our days uh*
 Uhh talk ummm our days ((Spanish))*Our uh ou* (.) *uh uh our day(s) uh*

11 *Nos jours uh avec nou avec nos jours* ((Shrugs shoulders))
 Our days uh with ou- with our days
 (about) our days uh with ou- with (about) our days

->12 S2: °D'accord° ((Nods))
 °Of agreement° ((Nods))
 °All right° ((Nods))

In this data sample, Subject 2 begins the sequence by asking a question in line 1. The turn contains a self-repair in line 1 (a restart). In line 3, Subject 1 begins to answer the question before hesitating and producing the item *je/* 'I' at the beginning of line 4. At the end of line 4, he hesitates before dropping out. This is followed by a brief pause in line 5. In line 6, Subject 1 produces the word *tous/* 'all' and continues his response before engaging in another word search for the item *elle/* 'she' followed by a brief pause. In line 7, Subject 1 continues his response with another word search which ultimately results in the verb form *composez/* 'dials.' In line 8, Subject 1 continues his response and engages in another word search resulting in *je/* 'I' and then he engages in another word search before a two second pause. Following this turn, Subject 1's answer could be complete as he answered the question. However, Subject 2 does not come in with either a third position token or a new question. Therefore Subject 1 orients to this as a sign that he has to say more. In line 9, Subject 1 produces the lexical item *parlez/* 'speak' and then engages in yet another word search for *les politiques/* 'politics' followed by another word search and a two second pause. In line 10 he produces the lexical item *parlez/* 'speak' again and then engages in a word search which is resolved with the Spanish item *nos días/* 'our days.' Next,

Subject 1 engages in several word searches which are resolved with the French equivalent *nos jours*/ ‘our days’ in line 11. Subject 1 accompanies his response with a shrug of the shoulders, most likely to represent that he is giving up following the production of ‘our days.’ This gesture is usually used when a co-participant is not sure of what else to say or cannot think of anything else to add to the prior talk. In line 12, Subject 1 acknowledges the receipt of this information and produces the third position response *d’accord*/ ‘all right’ Along with a quick nod of the head to also show he accepts this new information. Following this third position response, Subject 1 orients to this particular sequence as being complete and then moves on to the next topic (not displayed). In this sequence, the third position response was used as *d’accord*/ ‘all right’ was used by the French native speakers (described in Chapter 4) to also acknowledge the receipt of new information. The type of sequence engendered with this particular third position response is a closing down of the sequence as Subject 1 who produces it considers the topic to be complete after producing it and then moves on to the next topic (question). Also, for the sequence type, with the absence of a third position response in combination with the absence of a next question coming from Subject 1, Subject 2 orients to this as a request to continue and does so.

Pair #2

For Pair # 2’s pre-task interaction, a total number of four third position responses were used. A total of two spoken third position responses, *oui* / ‘yeah’ and *non ok* / ‘no ok’ were produced by one subject. There were two non-verbal third position responses, nods acknowledging an answer, which were produced by the other subject. For both of these examples, they will be presented and analyzed for the appropriate use (or not) of language and

the type of sequence that each third position response engenders. For the first example with *oui*/
‘yeah,’ the data sample is below:

Figure 5.4

MAH00041 5:03-5 :34

```

01 S1: Quelle es:t ta destina destination idealay pour les vacansay?
      What is: your destina destination ideal for the vacation?
      What is: your favorite pla place to go on vacation?

02      (10.0)

03 S1: idealay pour les vacansay?
      ideal for the vacation?
      favorite for vacation?

04 S2: idelay pour les vacansay?
      ideal for the vacation?
      favorite for vacation?

05      (.)

06 S2: Ummm

07      (3.0)

08 S2: Chicago. ((Shakes head and pushes hand out))

09      (.)

-> 10 S1: Oui.
      Yes.
      Yeah.
```

In this first example of verbal third position response, Subject 1 asks a question to Subject 2 about his favorite place to go on vacation in line 1. Subject 2 does not appear to understand the question as there is a ten second pause at line 2. In line 3, Subject 1 repeats the last part of the question to Subject 2 to help him understand the question. In line 4, Subject 2 repeats that last part of the question *idelay pour les vacansay?* / ‘favorite for vacation?’ and thereby does an understanding check. There is a brief pause in line 5. In line 6, Subject 2 engages in a brief word search and produces *Ummm*. There is a three second pause in line 7 before

Subject 2 finally answers the question with *Chicago* for his ideal vacation destination in line 8. His response is accompanied by a shaking of the head gesture showing he was not really sure of what to say. This is followed by a brief pause in line 9 before Subject 1 acknowledges his answer with the third position response *oui*/ ‘yeah’ before moving on to the next question (not shown). Here we can see that Subject 1’s third position response was a native-like use of language because a *oui* / ‘yes’ token to acknowledge receipt of a response is an appropriate third position response as discussed in Chapter 4 of the dissertation. That is, the *oui*/ ‘yeah’ is a third position response to an informing (SPP) that is also used by French native speakers in the third position after an informing. The type of sequence that was engendered by third position response was a closing down of this particular sequence following the third position response. That is, following the question (FPP) and a partial repeat of the question from Subject 1, Subject 2 finally produces a response (SPP), and then Subject 1 acknowledges this response with a *oui* / ‘yes’ before and considers the sequence complete and then moves on to another topic or question.

Below is another example of verbal third position response from Pair #2. The example is given below followed by an analysis.

Figure 5.5

MAH00041 8:48 – 8 :56

```

01 S1: As-tu déjà: construit u:n site web ?
      Have you already: constructed a: site web?
      Have you already: made a: website?

02      (2.0)

03 S2: ((Shakes head)) °no.°

-> 04 S1: Non okay
      No okay
      No okay

```

In the example above, Subject 1 asks a question to Subject 2 about whether or not he has made a website before. There is a two second pause in line 2 before Subject 2 responds with a *no* accompanied by a shaking of the head in line 3. In line 4, Subject 1 produces a composite third position response *non okay* / ‘no ok’ that does two things. First, it confirms the negative response given by Subject 2 in the previous line. Next, it also acknowledges the receipt of the information with the *okay*. Following the third position response in line 4, Subject 1 considers this particular sequence to be complete and therefore moves on to the next question on the review sheet (not shown). The language used in this sequence is also correct because it is similar to the other composites seen in French from Chapter 4 where each token does a specific task (Liddicoat 2007; Schegloff 2007). The type of sequence engendered by this particular third position response is a sequence that closes down after the third position response. That is, following the question (FPP) asked by Subject 1, Subject 2 produces a negative answer (SPP), and Subject 1 orients to this particular sequence as being complete after producing the composite third position response and then moves on to a new sequence of talk with the next question.

Pair #3

For Pair #3’s pre-task interaction, a total number of five verbal third position responses were used. There were other non-verbal third position responses such as nods to acknowledge answers to questions. Similar to other pairs, the continuer *mmhm* was used. In this pair, however, two unique data samples will be of interest: one giving a second assessment (*Je t’aime QUIA* / ‘I love you QUIA’) and a second using *d’accord* / ‘all right’ followed by an assessment. Both of these will be presented and analyzed below to understand how the language was used and what types of sequences were engendered by the third position responses. Also, in this pair,

Subject 1 reported her first exposure to French outside of the classroom and that she had spent approximately three months in a French-speaking environment. From the analysis of Pair #3's interactions in the pre-task phase, Subject 1 did use some verbal third position responses, but only the continuer *mmmhmmm*. This *mmmhmmm* is similar in usage to the *mmmhmmm* discussed earlier for Pair #1.

Figure 5.6

MAH00042 11:38 – 12:18

- 01 S2: Quels sont tus uuhh tes sss sites we-
 What are your ((Spanish)) your sss sites we-
What are your ((Spanish)) your sss sites we-
- 02 uhh webs préféré:s ? Pourquoi ?
 uhh web favori:te ? Why ?
uhh favori:te websites? Why?
- 03 S1: Uh
- 04 (.)
- 05 S1: Uh
- 06 (2.0)
- 07 S1: Je pré je préfère (.) centro parce que: j'étudie le français uh
 I pre I prefer (.) centro becaus:e I study the French uh
I pre I prefer (.) centro becaus:e I study French uh
- 08 (.)
- 09 au Centro
 to the Centro
on Centro
- > 10 S2: Je t'aime Quia
 I you love Quia
I love you Quia
- 11 S1: Haha je t'aime Quia
 Haha I you love Quia
Haha I love you Quia
- 12 S2: °He° He he ((Laughter))

Figure 5.6 (cont'd)

13 S1: *Oui*:
 Ye:s
 Yea:h

In the example above, Subject 2 asks a question about Subject 1's favorite websites in lines 1-2. Subject 2 also engages in two word searches for the items *sites*/ 'sites' and *web*/ 'web' when completing the question. In line 3-6, Subject 1 hesitates, these hesitations are interspersed by silences. In line 7, Subject 1 begins to produce an answer and engages in a word search (presumably searching for the correct grammatical form of the verb) followed by a brief pause and then completes her answer (in line 9). In her answer, Subject 1 has given an assessment followed by an account for this assessment. In line 10, Subject 2 produces a second positive assessment *Je t'aime QUIA*/ 'I love you QUIA' which is referring to the online QUIA website, which is a course platform where students enrolled in the course can find course-related materials. That is, this assessment does not assess Subject 1's prior turn, but treats Subject 1's response as a first assessment that is now responded to. She is giving her own response to the question. This response actually expands the sequence as Subject 1 orients to it as being funny and reproduces it accompanied by laughter in line 13. In line 14, Subject 2 also orients to this as funny and laughs as well. In line 15, Subject 1 acknowledges this assessment as true by producing *oui*/ 'yeah.' Following this question, Subject 2 orients to the sequence as being complete and moves on to the next topic (question). While this upgraded second assessment is not a third position follow-up response that this study focuses on, it is still worthwhile to point out that the talk is expanded and the conversation does not have the typical question/answer, question/answer sequence.

In this next example, in which Subject 2 asks Subject 1 if she has friends she only knows from the internet, the focus will be on the third position acknowledgement token *d'accord* / 'all right.'

Figure 5.7

MAH00042 14:13 – 15 :30

- 01 S2: Est-ce que tu ((clears throat)) est-ce que tu as des amis↓
Is it that you ((clears throat)) is it that you have some friends↓
Do you ((clears throat)) do you have some friends↓
- 02 (1.5)
- 03 uhh quoi que tu conna[↑]is s(e)ul(e)ment deh l'Inter[↑]net ?
uhh what that you kn[↑]ow only from the Inter[↑]net?
uhh what that you only kn[↑]ow from the Inter[↑]net?
- 04 (.)
- ((S1 reads question on sheet and repeats it aloud))
- 05 S1: Est-ce que tu as des amis °que tu tu connais
Is it that you have some friends °that you you know
Do you have some friends °that you you know
- 06 seulement de l'Internet ?°
only from the Internet?°
only from the Internet?°
- 07 (.)
- 08 S1: Oh
- 09 (6.0) ((S1 looks at question sheet and makes scrunched up face))
- 10 S1: (°>>) I don't know what the question [means<<°])
- 11 S2: [It means do]
- 12 S2: you have a friend who you only know through the Internet
- 13 S1: Oh oh Je:: Je n'ai (.) je n'ai pas (.)
Oh oh I:: I neg. have (.) I neg have neg (.)
Oh oh I:: don't have (.) I don't have (.)
- 14 S1: des amis que je connais seulement de l'Internet.
some friends that I know only from the Internet.
some (any) friends that I only know from the Internet.
- 15 (.)

Figure 5.7 (cont'd)

-> 16 S2: D'a:yrcord
 Of a:rgreement
 All ri:ght

20 (.)

21 S1: Heh (Laughter)

-> 22 S2: Les amis de l'Intern↑et son °heh° sont dangereux ((Smiles))
 The friends from the Intern↑et ar °heh° are dangerous (Smiles))
 Friends from the Intern↑et ar °heh° are dangerous ((Smiles))

23 S1: Oui:: c'est sont très très dangereuses
 Yes:: it is are very very dangerous
 Yea::h it's are very very dangerous

In this next example, Subject 2 begins to ask a question to Subject 1 about whether she has friends that she only knows from the Internet in line 1. There is a 1.5 second pause at line 2 before Subject 2 finishes the question in line 3. In line 4 there is a brief pause as Subject 1 is apparently not sure of the question. Subject 1 reads the question aloud from her practice question sheet in lines 5-6. There is a brief pause in line 7 followed by Subject 1 producing a change of state token (Heritage 1984) in line 8, because now she now recognizes what Subject 2 had said (however without understanding it – as becomes clear below). This is followed by a six second pause in line 9 during which Subject 1 is reading the question sheet again with a scrunched up look on her face that does concentration. That is, I took the scrunched up look on Subject 1's face to mean that she is concentrating on the question. This is similar to what Goodwin & Goodwin (1986) called a thinking face when a co-participant was engaged in a word search. In line 10 Subject 1 says out loud that she does not understand the question. In lines 11-12 Subject 2 provides the English translation of the question. In line 13, Subject 1 produces another change of state-token in third position, showing she has gone from a not-knowing to a knowing state (Heritage 1984). Subject 1 then also proceeds to provide an answer (which is produced with

several self-repairs in the form of several restarts and hesitations). In line 15 there is a brief pause as Subject 1 is not continuing and Subject 2 does not start to speak immediately after the end of the prior TCU. Upon hearing the pause, Subject 2 produces a third position response *d'accord*/ 'all right' acknowledging this new information in line 19. There is a slight pause in line 20 followed by Subject 2 laughing in line 21, possibly as a way to avoid embarrassment or to save face. In line 22, Subject 1 orients to this laughter by producing a follow-up negative assessment of friends from the Internet accompanied by a smile, thereby also providing an account for not having internet friends. In line 23, Subject 1 aligns with this assessment and produces a preferred response (Pomerantz 1984) by upgrading *dangereux*/ 'dangerous' to *très très dangereux* / 'very very dangerous.' Following this upgrade, Subject 2 orients to the topic being complete and moves on to the next question. In this example, the language is used correctly with the *d'accord*/ 'all right' acknowledging the new information, just as the French native speakers did in Chapter 4. The type of sequence engendered with this third position response is an expansion of the sequence as both subjects make further talk on the topic after the third position response is made.

Pair #4

For Pair #4 in the pre-task phase, there were a total of two verbal third position responses. Each subject in the pair produced one verbal third position response each, and that was the token *oui*/ 'yeah' to acknowledge the receipt of new information. The use of the *oui* token in each of these examples is similar in nature to Pair #2 in the pre-task phase. In addition to the verbal third position response, Subject 1 also nods to signal the acknowledgement of the new information. In both instances of *oui*/ 'yeah' in the third position, the language was used just as French native speakers similarly used *oui*/ 'yeah' to acknowledge new information from the corpus discussed

in Chapter 4. In terms of the sequences engendered with these third position responses, the *oui*/ ‘yeah’ serves as a sequence-closing third due to the fact that the person producing the token considers the sequence complete and then moves on to the next question.

Pair A

As was said above, due to an unforeseen occurrence in the post-task phase,⁹ Pair A must be considered separately. In the pre-task phase, Pair A produced a total of six verbal third position responses. Subject 1 produced four of them and Subject 2 produced two of them. The responses included tokens that have previously been discussed: two positive assessments (*c’est romantique* / ‘that’s romantic’ and *c’est bon* / ‘that’s good’), one negative assessment (*je suis jalouse* / ‘I’m jealous’), two uses of the token *oui*/ ‘yeah’ and one use of the token *d’accord* / ‘all right’ for acknowledging information. These assessments are different from the previous ones in that they assess the utterance of the prior speaker. One example will be given and analyzed below in Figure 5.8.

Figure 5.8

MAH00043 18:39 – 18 :43

01 S1: So so tu vas visiter le MoMA?
 So so you go to visit the MoMA?
 So so you’re going to visit the MoMA?

02 S2: Oui oui
 Yes yes
 Yeah yeah

⁹ The unforeseen occurrence is that the teacher explicitly told the subjects in this pair to use third position responses during the post-task phase (i.e., the oral midterm exams) and did not do so for the other four pairs. Consequently, this pair must be analyzed separately.

Figure 5.8 (cont'd)

03 S1: A New York?
 At New York?
 In New York?

04 S2: mmmm oui.
 Mmmm yes.
 Mmmm yeah.

-> 05 S1: Oui c'est bon. °c'est bon.° ((Nods))
 Yes it is good. °It is good.°
 Yeah that's good. That's good.

06 S2: Oui. ((Nods))
 Yes.
 Yeah.

Prior to the example above, Subject 1 had asked Subject 2 if he was going to visit a museum in the future, and if so, which one (lines not shown). After Subject 2 says he's going to visit a museum, Subject 1 asks him if he's going to visit the MoMA (Museum of Modern Art). Following an understanding check, Subject 1 explains in English that it's a museum she had been to and liked to visit. In line 1, then, Subject 1 then produces a confirmation check if Subject 2 does intend to go to the MoMA. In line 2, Subject 2 confirms that he is indeed going to the MoMA and repeats yes twice, indicating that his response is obvious (Stivers 2004). In line 3, Subject 1 does another comprehension check and asks if Subject 2 is going to the one in New York. In line 4, Subject Subject 2 produces a composite confirmation with *mmm* and *oui* with each token positively affirming the answer. In line 5, Subject 1 then produces a positive assessment of Subject 2's answer and says *oui c'est bon °c'est bon°* / 'yeah that's good °that's good°' in reference to the fact that Subject 2 will be visiting a museum that she previously said she liked. Her assessment is accompanied by a nod as additional proof of her approval. Subject 2 confirms this positive assessment with a *oui* / 'yeah' in line 6. Following this, their interaction was complete (i.e., all of the questions had been asked). The language used here is similar to that of the French native speakers from the corpus. We can also see that the sequence is

minimally extended with the *oui* in line 6, with which S2 indicates her alignment with the prior speaker.

There were also non-verbal third position responses such as nods that were used to acknowledge responses. The language was used appropriately with these six third position responses. Concerning the assessments, Subject 1 produced them (to assess an answer given by Subject 2. This is similar to how assessments were used by French native speakers in the corpus described in Chapter 4. In the case of the acknowledgement tokens, they were used to acknowledge the receipt of new information, just as the French native speakers did in the corpus described in Chapter 4. With regard to the types of sequences engendered by the various third position responses, the acknowledgement tokens closed down the sequence of talk as the subject who produced them considered the topic complete and then moved on to the next topic (question). For the assessments in the third position, the negative assessment closed down the sequence of talk as Subject 1 who produced it moved on to the next topic after producing it. The positive assessments both served as sequence expanding thirds as more talk was generated by both subjects about the topic prior to the topic coming to an end.

Summary of Pre-task Phase

Overall, it appears that the subjects in the study were already producing some types of third position responses prior to the task phase. That is, this might be pragmatic transfer from English since speakers know intuitively that we do not simply produce questions and answers in succession. The third position responses were both verbal and non-verbal in nature. From the analysis it appears that the various verbal responses were used correctly in their respective third

positions, as evidenced by the fact that they were used similarly by the French native speakers who were described in Chapter 4.

With regard to the non-verbal third position responses, it seems that across the five pairs, nodding was the most common gesture to be produced. The nods either accompanied a verbal third position response such as *oui*/ ‘yeah’ when acknowledging an answer, or else they were produced alone to acknowledge a response without any verbal utterance. Another gesture produced was the shrug of the shoulders that came at the end of an extended word search when the subject gave up after producing one possible answer. A third gesture that was produced was a scrunched up face that showed the subject who produced it was concentrating. This is similar to the thinking face described by Goodwin & Goodwin (1986).

5.5.3 Task Phase

The following section briefly summarizes the task phase. For a more detailed description, please consult Chapter 3. The task phase occurred one day after the pre-task phase. The first part of the task phase involved a lesson plan teaching students how to use selected third position responses in French. Prior to the task phase, the instructor of the French 102 course was provided a lesson plan for a 50 minute class session. (Please see Appendix C.) Each subject was provided with a hand-out to use and complete during the teaching unit (See Appendix D). The third position responses that were chosen for the lesson plan included positive and negative assessments, confirmation and understanding checks, surprised responses, and the acknowledgment tokens *d'accord* and *ok*.

During the first part of the lesson, the teacher introduced the overview of the teaching unit. Following this introduction, students got into pairs and worked on the hand-out. The first

activity had learners think about using appropriate third responses in English. The next activity provided sample contexts for using the aforementioned third position responses in French. For each context, there were accompanying audio or video files in which French native speakers used the various third position responses. The third activity was a practice activity in which subjects were to match a third position response in French with the appropriate context. The final activity of the teaching unit was the actual speaking task. This was a role-play in which one subject either played the role of a tourist asking for directions to a famous landmark in Paris or the role of a local French person giving directions. Subjects were instructed to switch roles after asking five questions so that each person had an opportunity to produce a third position response. The teacher provided feedback to each group. Please consult Appendix (D) to see the complete hand-out.

5.5.4 Post-task Phase

The post-task phase is briefly summarized here. Please consult Chapter 3 for a more detailed description. The post-task occurred three days after the task phase and consisted of the oral midterm exam for the French 102 class. During the post-task phase, the subjects were engaged in the same type of conversational activity as the pre-task phase. Each subject was instructed by the teacher to randomly select a topic sheet with six questions on it related to the topic, and was then told to ask the six questions to his/her partner. This way, each student had the opportunity to practice asking questions and then responding to questions. There were 12 probable slots for subjects to use a third position response, for a total of 60 total slots across the five pairs. Compared to the fact there were 110 possible slots for subjects to use a third position response across the five pairs during the pre-task phase, this is an important fact to remember

and will be discussed in more detail below with a comparison of language use between the pre-task and post-task.

Following the completion of their conversation, each pair filled out a language background questionnaire and a post-task questionnaire. Please consult Appendix E for a copy of the language background questionnaire and Appendix F for a copy of the post-task questionnaire. The results of the post-task questionnaire will be discussed below.

5.5.5 Post-task Phase Results

For the post-task phase, it was noted that there was an increased number of verbal third position responses used by the subjects compared to the pre-task phase. Across the four pairs, there were two pairs in which both subjects used some verbal third position responses in their interactions. The remaining two pairs had at least one person use some verbal third position responses in their interactions. The remaining pair that could not be analyzed with the others, Pair A, had both subjects use third position responses. However, this pair was explicitly told by the teacher to use the third position responses from the task phase in their conversation, so they must be analyzed separately. Examples of some verbal third position responses that were used include *d'accord*/ 'all right,' *oui*/ 'yeah,' *oh ben dis donc*/ 'oh well you don't say,' and some assessments like *super*/ 'super.' It was noted that non-verbal third position responses such as nods and smiles were used to acknowledge answers in place of a verbal third position response. These will be summarized in the post-task summary section. Overall, the language used by the subjects was pragmatically native-like, in that the subjects used the third position responses for certain situations just as the French native speakers did in the corpus analyzed in Chapter 4. The results of the post-task phase are summarized in Table 5.2 below. Each pair's performance

during the post-task will now be discussed individually below. Data samples of various third position responses from their interactions will also be presented and analyzed.

Table 5.2: Number of verbal third position responses by pair in post-task phase

	<u>Pair 1</u>	<u>Pair 2</u>	<u>Pair 3</u>	<u>Pair 4</u>	<u>Total for pairs 1-4</u>	<u>Pair A</u>
<u>Subject 1</u>	3	4	6	3	16	1
<u>Subject 2</u>	0	3	0	3	6	9
<u>Total</u>	3	7	6	6	22	10

Pair #1

For the first pair, there were a total of three verbal third position responses produced. Only Subject 1 produced any verbal third position responses. Subject 2 produced non-verbal third position responses such as nods and smiles before moving on to the next question. Compared to the pre-task phase, Subject 1 increased his production of verbal third position responses from two to three. This increase of 3/6, or a total production of 50% of possible third position responses, is much better when compared with the pre-task phase when he only produced 2/12 or produced 17% of the possible third position responses. Subject 2 did not use any verbal third position responses in the post-task interaction whereas he produced two (the continuer *mmhmm* and *d'accord*/ 'all right') during the pre-task phase. However, Subject 2 did use non-verbal third position responses such as smiles and nods to acknowledge Subject 1's responses. A data sample containing the third position responses *okay* and *d'accord*/ 'all right' (both taught during the teaching unit) from Pair #1's interaction will be presented and analyzed below.

Figure 5.9

MAH00039 4:19 – 6:01

- 01 S1: Kwand est la dernière fois qué tu as rendu visite à ta famille ?
When is the last time that you have rendered visit to your family?
When is the last time that you visited your family?
- 02 (.)
- 03 S1: Qu'est-ce que tu as fait avec ta famille ?
That is it that you have done with your family ?
What did you do with your family?
- 04 S2: Hhhhh ((Makes scrunched face))
- 05 S1: Premier kwand est la dernière fois qué
First when is the last time that
First when is the last time that
- 06 tu as rendu rendu visite à ta famille? ((Makes pointing gesture))
you have rendered rendered visit to your family?
you visited visited your family?
- 07 S2: Hmmm ummm uh j'ai je visite uh la famille uhh kwand (.) uhh
Hmmm ummm uh I have I visit uh the family uhh when (.) uhh
Hmmm ummm uh I've I visit uh (my) family uhh when (.) uhh
- 08 (4.0) Uhh oh pour uh eehh (2.0) uh ((Pushes hands up))
(4.0) Uhh oh for uh eehh (2.0) uh
(4.0) *Uhh oh for uh eehh (2.0) uh*
- 09 (5.0)
- 10 S1: Uh kwand† kwand is [la dernière fois] le jour dernier uh
Uh when† when is [the last time] the day last uh
Uh when† when is [the last time] the last day uh
[]
- 11 S2: [oh °oh oh° kwand]
[oh °oh oh° when]
[oh °oh oh° when]
- 12 S1: le le le mois dernier ?
the the the month last ?
last last last month ?
- 13 S2: Oh: oh: oh: uh uh (.) dernier janvier uh uh j'ai (.) Uh
Oh: oh: oh: uh uh (.) last January uh uh I have (.) Uh
Oh: oh: oh: uh uh (.) last January uh uh I've (.) Uh
- 14 (.)je visite uh mon meér et mon frère
(.) visit uh my mom and my brother
(.) *I visit(ed) my mom and my brother*

Figure 5.9 (cont'd)

15 S1: Kwa Kwand ?
 Whe when?
 Whe when?

16 S2: Uh janvier
 Uh January
 Uh January

-> 17 S1: OK.

18 S1: Qu'est Qu'est-ce que tu as fait avec ta famille ?
 That is that is it that you have done with your family ?
 What What did you do with your family?

19 (3.0)

20 S1: Qu'e [st]
 That i[s]
 Wha [at]
 []
 21 S2: [oh oh]

22 S2: Umm uh nou:s (.) uh nous faisons uh (2.0) uh nager bro bronzer
 Umm uh we: (.) uh Uh we do uh (2.0) Uh to swim ta to tan uh tan
 Umm uh we: (.)Uh we (did) uh (2.0) *Uh swimming ta tanning uh tan*

23 S2: uh bronze à la pege uh heh he
 uh tan at the beach uh heh he
 uh tan at the beach uh heh he

->24 S1: D'accord. ((Nods))
 Of agreement.
 All right.

25 ((S1 keeps trying to think of things to say but teacher asks them to
 move on to next question))

In the example above, Subject 1 asks the question when the last time was that Subject 2 visited his family (line 1). This is followed by a brief pause in line 2 right before Subject 1 asks a second question about what Subject 2 did with his family during the visit. In line 4 Subject 2 responds with a *Hhhh* and makes a scrunched up face. In lines 5-6, Subject 1 treats this as Subject 2 being uncertain about the question as evidenced by the fact that Subject 1 simplifies things by breaking up the questions into separate parts with a *Premier/* 'First' attached to the first question. Subject 2 begins to respond in line 7 with some hesitations (see the filled silences

before *la/* ‘the’ and *kwand (quand)* / ‘when.’ respectively. This is followed by a brief pause as Subject 2 engages in another word search only comes up with *Uhhh* before dropping out. This is followed by a four second pause as Subject 2 again tries to continue his answer with one big word search. He produces *oh* and *ehhh*, which are accompanied by him doing a shrugging gesture where he pushes his hands up in the air. It is clear that he is having trouble forming an answer. This is followed by a two second pause, another *Uh* from Subject 2, and then a five second pause. Subject 1 orients to this obvious trouble in line 10 and repeats *kwand (quand)* / ‘when’ twice before going on to repeat the question and giving examples of times in lines 10 and 12 presumably in order to clarify things. During Subject 1’s explanation in lines 10 and 12, Subject 2 suddenly claims to understand as evidenced by the repeated change-of-state token *oh* in line 11 which overlaps with Subject 2’s talk. Subject 2 claims to understand the question and is in a state of now-knowing (Heritage 1984) in line 13 as he produces three elongated *oh:-* tokens before attempting to speak and then dropping out. There is a brief pause in line 14 before Subject 2 starts to produce an answer and then hesitates before *je/* ‘I’. There is another brief pause before Subject 2 completes his answer of when he last visited his family in line 14. In line 15, Subject 1 does a clarification check (i.e., initiates repair in the third position) and asks *Kwand (quand)* / ‘when’ with regard to the family visit. Subject 2 responds in line 16 that he visited his family in January. Subject 1 acknowledges the receipt of this new information with the third position response *Ok* in line 17. Subject 1 then initiates a new topic and goes on to repeat the second part of the question in line 18. There is a three second pause in line 19 and then Subject 1 begins to repeat the question in line 20. During the repeat of the new question, Subject 2 claims that he now understands the question by producing *oh* (Heritage 1984) twice in line 22. Here with the *oh*, as in the pre-task phase, it can be seen that subjects are transferring the *oh* from

English and not using the *ah* that French native speakers use. Subject 2 then begins to explain what he and his family did and engages in a word search for a verb in line 22 followed by a brief pause before Subject 2 continues explaining what they did. Subject 2 also starts to engage in a word search before dropping out followed by a two second pause before Subject 2 resumes speaking and engages in a word search for *nager*/ ‘to swim’ to explain that his family went swimming at the beach in line 23. Subject 1 acknowledges this new information with a third position *d’accord*/ ‘all right’ in line 24. Subject 2 then attempted to think of something else to say, but the teacher intervened and asked them to move on to the next question. In this example, the two third position responses, *Ok* and *D’accord* are both used correctly to acknowledge the receipt of new information. That is, they were used similarly to how French native speakers in the corpus used them in the interactions discussed in Chapter 4. For the type of sequence that was engendered with these third position responses, the sequence was closed down with the *Ok* as Subject 1 oriented to the topic being complete and moved on to the next question. For the *D’accord*, it appeared that the sequence was going to continue as Subject 2 was still trying to think of something to say after Subject 1 produced the *D’accord*. However, since there was the instruction to move on to the next question, the sequence did end there.

Pair #2

In the post-task phase, Pair #2 produced a total of seven verbal third position responses. Subject 1 produced *D’accord* / ‘All right’ four times. Subject 2 produced *D’accord*/ ‘All right, the proterm assessment (Pomerantz 1984) *oh moi aussi* / ‘oh me too,’ and the response *ah bon*/ ‘oh really.’ Again, note that the subjects continued to use the *oh* token from English, instead of the *ah* token in French, indicating a pragmatic transfer. Subject 1 improved from the pre-task

phase where he did not produce any verbal third position responses. This is again a notable increase as Subject 1 went from 0/12 to 4/6, or from 0% to 80% in terms of producing the possible amounts of third position responses. Subject 2 produced two during each of the phases, which is also significant because she went from 2/12 to 2/6, or from 17% to 40% in terms of production of possible responses. Subjects 1 and 2 both used *D'accord*/ 'All right' appropriately to acknowledge new information from a prior turn in the same way as Pair #1 did. Below is an excerpt from their interaction containing the third position response *oh moi aussi*/ 'oh me too' and the analysis.

Figure 5.10

MAH00040 9:08 – 10:56

- 01 S2: Est-ce tu as déjà vu un tableau qué tu as beaucoup ami:¹⁰?
Is it you have already seen a painting that you have a lot liked ?
Have you already seen a painting that you really liked?
- 02 Say étate¹¹ où ? Say étate comment ?
It was where ? It was how ?
Where was it? How was it?
- 03 S1: Répétez °s'il vous plait°
Repeat °if it you pleases°
°Please° repeat that
- 04 S2: Est-ce que tu as déjà vu un tableau qué¹² tu as beaucoup ami:?
Is it that you have already seen a painting that you have a lot liked?
Have you already seen a painting that you really liked?
- 05 (.)
- 06 T: °aimé° beaucoup aimé ((Teacher corrects S2's pronunciation))
°liked° a lot liked
°liked° liked a lot

10 Ami: = aimé

11 Say étate = C'était

12 Qué = Spanish pronunciation of French relative pronoun "que"

Figure 5.10 (cont'd)

07 S2: beaucoup aimé ((Looks towards teacher and smiles))
 a lot liked
liked a lot

08 S1: Uhh je ne sais je ne sais pas uhh(.)Com Compru¹³
 Uhh I neg know I neg know neg uhh (.) Under understand
Uhh I don't know I don't know uhh (.) under understand

09 (.)

10 S1: Répétez
 Repeat
Repeat

11 S2: Est-ce que tu as déjà vu un tableau qué tu as beaucoup aimé ?
 Is it that you have already seen a painting that you have a lot liked ?
Have you already seen a painting that you really liked?
 ((Looks towards teacher again and laughs))

12 (.)

13 S1: °Tableau ?°
 °Painting ?°
 °Painting ?°

14 T: Un Table[au
 A painti[ng
 A *painti[ng*
 [

15 S1: [Je ne °comp°
 [I neg °under°
 [*I don't °under°*

16 T: Un tableau
 A painting
 A *painting*

17 S1: °Un tableau°
 °A painting°
 °A *painting*°

18 T: Un tableau dans les musées un tableau
 A painting in the museums a painting
 A *painting in the museums a painting*

19 (.)

20 S1: Uhhhhh

Figure 5.10 (cont'd)

- 21 T: La peinture
The painting
Painting
- 22 S1: Peinture↑ ohhh peinture le::: (.) je moi je uhhh
Painting↑ ohhh painting the::: (.) I me I uhhh
Painting↑ ohhh painting the::: (.) I me I uhhh
- 23 (.) Le peinture de uhhh (.) Uhhh l'artiste Picasso
(.) The painting of uhh (.) Uhhh the artist Picasso
(.) *The painting of uhhh (.) Uhhh the artist Picasso*
- > 24 S2: Oh moi aussi
Oh me also
Oh me too
- 25 S1: Uhh (.) Uh parce que (.) uhh le le l'artiste
Uhh (.) Uh because (.) uhh the the the artist
Uhh (.) Uh because (.) uhh the the the artist
- 26 S1: los peintur painters peintures ummm
the painter painters paintings ummm
the painter painters paintings ummm
- 27 espagnoles uhhh ()
spanish uhhh ()
spanish uhhh ()
- > 28 S2: Ah bon.
Oh good.
Oh really.

In lines 1-2, Subject 2 asks two questions to Subject 1 about whether or not he saw a painting that he really liked and where it was. In line 3 Subject 1 requests that Subject 2 repeat the question. Subject 2 repeats the first question in line 4. There is a brief pause in line 5 before the teacher (T) intervenes to correct Subject 2's pronunciation in line 6. Subject 2 repeats the last part of the first question in line 7 with the correct pronunciation. Subject 1 then produces a no-knowledge claim, followed by a brief pause, and then engages in a word search which results in *compru*/ 'understand' in line 8. There is another brief pause at line 9 before Subject 1 requests yet again that Subject 2 repeat the question. Subject 2 again repeats the first question for Subject 1 in line 11. There is a brief pause in line 12 before Subject 1 does an understanding check for

the trouble source *Tableau*/ ‘Painting’ in line 13. The teacher again intervenes in line 14 and repeats the trouble word *Tableau* / ‘Painting.’ While the teacher is repeating the word, Subject 1 overlaps with the teacher’s talk and says he does not understand in line 15. The teacher again repeats the word in line 16 and Subject 1 repeats it again in line 17 without giving any indication of having understood the word. The teacher tries to explain what the word means in line 18. This is followed by a brief pause in line 19 and Subject 1 is still uncertain of what to say as he produces *Uhhh* in line 20. The teacher then gives a synonym, *La peinture*/ ‘Painting,’ in line 21. Subject 1 now understands this new word as he repeats it with rising intonation and produces the change of state token *oh* (Heritage 1984) in line 22. There is then a brief pause before Subject 1 starts to produce an answer *La peinture de uhhh* / ‘The painting of uhhh’, another brief pause before continuing with his answer in line 23. Subject 1 is engaged in a word search which results in *l’artiste*/ ‘the artist’. After Subject 1 completes his response with *l’artiste Picasso*/ ‘the artist Picasso’, Subject 2 aligns with Subject 1’s choice of art and then produces the third position response *oh moi aussi*/ ‘oh me too’ at line 24. Pomerantz (1984) notes these responses may be used to mean “same as prior,” and here it can be understood that Subject 2 has the same assessment of the choice that Subject 1 said he liked. This proterm assessment (Pomerantz 1984) is a preferred response and demonstrates that Subject 2 agrees with Subject 1’s assessment. In line 25, Subject 1 attempts to further explain his choice in a turn that contains multiple word searches. The construction is abandoned, and instead, Subject 1 provides a new account in lines 26-27. In response, Subject 2 then produces the response *Ah bon*/ ‘Oh really’ in line 28 thereby ending the sequence.

In this segment, the *oh moi aussi*/ ‘oh me too’ assessment was used correctly as Subject 2 aligned with Subject 1’s choice of a painting (artist) he liked. Concerning the use of the

newsworthy or surprised third position response *ah bon*/ ‘oh really,’ it appears that the response was not oriented to in the same way as by the French native speakers described in Chapter 4. That is, usually after a French native speaker produced a topicalization third position response *ah bon*, meaning that he/she oriented to the information as warranting further talk, the sequence would be expanded and the co-participant producing the answer (SPP) would continue with his/her answer and give more details. Here, however, when Subject 2 produces it, the sequence ends and is not expanded. The intonation is also falling as well in this segment whereas French native speakers in the corpus usually produced it with rising intonation, meaning that it was more of a question that invited further discussion. For the types of sequences engendered with these two third position responses, the assessment allows the sequence to be expanded as Subject 1 continues to try and explain why he likes Picasso. For the topicalization response, the sequence was closed down after this third position response, whereas normally the sequence would be expanded to allow for more information to be given.

Pair #3

During the post-task phase, Pair #3 produced a total of six verbal third position responses. Subject 1 produced all of them. They included *D'accord* / ‘all right’ and *ok* to acknowledge new information, the positive assessment *c'est vrai* / ‘that’s true,’ and the surprised response *oh ben dis donc* / ‘oh well you don’t say.” Subject 2 only produced non-verbal third position responses which included nods to acknowledge answers given by Subject 1. In comparison to the pre-task phase, where subject 1 produced 2/12 or 17% of total third position responses, she produced 6/6, or all the possible third position responses that she could have. It should also be pointed out here that Subject 1 was the one who reported first being exposed to French outside of the classroom

and who reported being immersed in a French-speaking environment for three months. She did produce the highest number of verbal third position responses in the four pairs being analyzed for the study. Subject 2 decreased the production of his number of third position responses as he produced three verbal position responses in the pre-task compared with none in the post-task. However, he was acknowledging answers produced by Subject 1 through the use of nodding. It should be pointed out that Subject 1 was nodding as much as he was producing oral third position responses in the pre-task phase. That is, even though he was not producing any verbal third position responses, he was still attending to the talk and acknowledging his partner's answers to the questions he asked.

With regard to the verbal third position responses, they were used similarly as the other examples of *d'accord*/ 'all right,' *okay*, assessments and newsworthy/ surprised responses that were described earlier. They were also used appropriately with the *d'accord*/ 'all right' and *okay* used to acknowledge new information, the *c'est vrai*/ 'that's true' positively assessing or confirming what was just said, and the *oh ben dis donc*/ 'oh well you don't say' being used to show that an answer was newsworthy. With regard to the *et ben dis donc*/ 'oh well you don't say,'" it was produced with rising intonation in this example, which is how the French native speaker from the corpus used it. The French native speakers in the corpus also used these other expressions in similar ways, confirming that they were used correctly. The types of sequences engendered by these particular verbal third position responses were all sequences that closed down after the third position response was produced. That is, Subject 2 considered the sequences to be complete and moved on to the next question after producing each of the verbal third position responses.

Pair #4

During the post-task Pair #4 produced a total of six verbal third position responses. Subject 1 and Subject 2 each produced three verbal third position responses. Subjects 1 and 2 both also increased their number of third responses from one each during the pre-task phase up to three each during the post-task phase. Subject 1 produced 1 out of 12 possible verbal third position responses or 8% of possible production in the pre-task phase. This increased to 3 out of 6 or 50% of possible production in the post-task phase, so this is a noticeable increase. For Subject 2 in the pre-task phase, he also produced 1 out of 12 possible verbal third position responses or 8% of possible production. Similarly, he also increased to 3 out of 6 or 50% of possible production in the post-task, which is equally noticeable. The types of verbal third responses used included *oui/* ‘yeah’ and *d’accord/* ‘all right’ to acknowledge new information, the positive assessments *super* and *j’aime beaucoup/* ‘I like a lot,’ and then a combination of *d’accord* plus a positive assessment. The composite third position response and *oui/* ‘yeah’ acknowledgement token will be presented and analyzed below. There were also non-verbal gestures such as nods that accompanied the *oui/* ‘yeah’ third position responses.

Figure 5.11

MAH00043 2:12 – 3:04

- 01 S2: Est-ce que
Is it that
Are
- 02 (1.0) ((swallows))
- 03 tu connais des musé:es ?↑ Lesquels ?↑
you know some museums ? ↑ Which ones ?↑
you familiar with any museums?↑ Which ones?↑
- 04 S1: mmm ((nods affirmatively))
- 05 S2: Quel musée vas-tu visiter dans le futur ?↑
What museum going you to visit in the future ?↑
What museum are you going to visit in the future?↑
- 06 S1: Mmm oui uhh je connais uhh uhhh le musée uuh d'art à Chicago
Mmm yes uhh I know uhh uhhh the museum uuh of art at Chicago
Mmm yeah uhh I'm familiar with uhh uhhh the Chicago art museum
- 07 uhhh (1.0) je pense uhhm c'est une uhh (3.0) uhh bien bien
Uhhh (1.0) I think uhhm it is a uhh (3.0) uhh well well
Uhhh (1.) I think uhhm it's a uhh (3.0) uhh well well
- 08 mu uh musée
mu uh musée
mu uh museum
- > 09 S2: D'accord c'est c'[est u]n grand musée.
Of agreement it is it[is a] great museum.
Alright it's i[t's a] great museum.
[]
- 10 S1: [uhh]
- 11 S1: Je vais aller
I go to go
I'm going to go
- 12 (1.0)
- 13 à cette muée musée musée uhh umm
to this mus museum museum uhh umm
to this mus museum museum uhh umm
- 14 (2.0)
- 15 °ce° ((twirls finger in the air)) prochain week-end.
°this° ((twirls finger in the air)) next week-end.
°this° ((twirls finger in the air)) *next weekend .*

In line 1, Subject 2 starts to ask a question of Subject 1 before pausing for one second to swallow in line 2. He completes his question in line 3 about whether or not Subject 1 knows of any museums. Subject 1 affirms this with *mmm* and a nod of the head in line 4. In line 5, Subject 2 then asks the second question about which museums Subject 1 plans to visit in the future. Subject 1 responds affirmatively with *mmm oui/* ‘mmm yeah’ before hesitating and then producing *le musée d’art à Chicago/* ‘the art museum in Chicago’ in line 6. In line 7, Subject 1 attempts to expand his answer by providing an assessment of the museum. This turn again, contains multiple word searches. In line 7-8, he finishes his positive assessment by saying *bien mu uh musée/* ‘well mu uh museum’ to describe it as a good museum (although the adjective *bon/* ‘good’ should have been used instead of the adverb *bien/* ‘well’). Subject 2 produces the composite third position response *d’accord c’est c’est un grand musée/* ‘all right it’s it’s a great museum’ in line 9 that consists of an acknowledgement plus a positive assessment. The *d’accord/* ‘all right’ is used to acknowledge the receipt of new information and the assessment *c’est c’est un grand musée/* ‘it’s it’s a great museum’ describes the museum just mentioned by Subject 1. After the third position response, Subject 1 continues to expand the sequence and starts to talk more about his plans to visit the museum during the upcoming weekend in line 11 followed by a one second pause in line 12. He then engages in a word search for *musée/* ‘museum’ in line 13, pauses for two seconds in line 14, and finishes by saying he will go there next weekend in line 15. In this example, the composite response is used correctly in that composite responses were used in a similar manner by French native speakers in the corpus described in Chapter 4. That is, each token has its own role in the composite third position response with the *d’accord* acknowledging the new information and the assessment positively describing the museum that Subject 1 knows (Liddicoat 2007, Schegloff 2007). The type of

sequence engendered here is that the first part of the sequence answered the question (with *mmm* and nods) and the second part of the sequence answered the second question from line 5.

In this next example, where Subject 2 asks Subject 1 about his reading habits, the focus will be on the acknowledgement token *oui*/‘yeah.’

Figure 5.12

MAH00043 0:52 – 1:49

- 01 S2: Est-ce que tu lis régulièrement? Quelle littérature aimes-tu ?
Is it that you read regularly? What literature like you?
Do you read regularly? What type of literature do you like?
- 02 (.)
- 03 S1: °Quelle littérature aimes-tu ?° je ne sais pa:s ((Shrugs))
° What literature like you?° I neg know neg
°*What kind of literature do you like?*° I do:nt know
- 04 T: Est-ce que tu l [i:↑s]régulièrement? Quel type de littérature ?
Is it that you r[e:↑ad]regularly? What type of literature?
Do you r[e:↑ad] regularly? What type of literature?
- 05 S1: [mmhmm] ((Nods))
- 06 (.)
- 07 S1: Oui↑ uh heh oui Uh je lis uh régulière uh (4.0) *Uhhh
Yes↑ uh heh yes Uh I read uh regular uh (4.0) *Uhhh
*Yeah↑ uh heh yeah Uh I read uh regular uh (4.0) *Uhhh*
((Makes pointing gesture towards S2's question sheet))
- 08 S2: Uh quel type de littérature ?
Uh what type of literature?
Uh what type of literature?
- 09 S1: °Quel livre ?°
°What book?°
°*What book?*°
- 10 S2: Quel type ?
What type?
What type?
- 11 S1: Oohh umm
- 12 ((S1 swallows))

Figure 5.12 (cont'd)

13 S1: J'aime uhh
 I like uhh
 I like uhh

14 S1: J'aime le:s uhhs (2.0) uhhs (3.0) Uhh science-fiction
 I like the: uhhs (2.0) uhhs (3.0) uhh science-fiction
 I like the: uhhs (2.0) uhhs (3.0) uhh science-fiction

15 S2: °science-fiction°
 °science-fiction°
 °science-fiction°

16 (1.0)

17 S1: livres
 books
 books

->18 S2: Oui. ((Nods))
 Yes.
 Yeah.

In line 1, Subject 2 asks Subject 1 if he reads regularly and what types of books he likes. There is a brief pause in line 2 before Subject 1 repeats the question to himself and then says he does not know the answer in line 3. The teacher intervenes to clarify the question and repeats the questions to Subject 1 in line 4. Subject 1 produces an *mhm* confirmation accompanied by a nod in line 5 which overlaps with the teacher's repeat of the question in line 4. There is a brief pause in line 6 before Subject 1 produces a doubtful *oui*/ 'yeah' accompanied by laughter in line 7 followed by another *oui*/ 'yeah' and then engages in a word search for what he reads regularly before a four second pause, and then Subject 1 continues the word search with *Uhhh* before dropping out in line 7. He also points at Subject 2's question card (see asterisk in transcript). In line 8, Subject 2 orients to that question as a request for a repeat. He repeats the question, and in line 9 Subject 1 initiates repair in form of a candidate understanding *Quel livre*/ 'What book.' Subject 2 repeats the correct expression *Quel type*/ 'What type' in line 10, and then Subject 1 claims to understand the question now by producing the change of state token *oh* (Heritage 1984)

in line 11. He produces the *oh* with American pronunciation like previous subjects and not the *ah* like the French native speakers. After swallowing in line 12, Subject 1 goes on an extended word search for *science-fiction*/ ‘science fiction’ in lines 13-14 with two long pauses in line 13. After Subject 1 produces the type of book he likes, Subject 2 aligns with Subject 1’s response and repeats *science-fiction* to confirm that he is aware of the preference in line 15. This confirmation repeat is also a third position response, but it was not one taught in the teaching unit. There is a brief pause in line 16 before Subject 1 specifies that he is talking about books by adding *livres*/ ‘books’ to his answer in line 17. Subject 2 then acknowledges the receipt of this information in line 18 by producing the third position response *oui*/ ‘yeah’ before moving on to a new topic sequence. In this sample the language use is native-like because the French native speakers in the corpus also used *oui*/ ‘yeah’ to acknowledge the receipt of new information. The type of sequence engendered with this third position response was a sequence that closed down in the third position as Subject 2 considered the sequence to be complete and then moved on to a new topic after producing the *oui*/ ‘yeah’ response.

Pair A

As was mentioned earlier, there was one pair that had to be analyzed separately, since the teacher explicitly told the subjects to use third position responses from the teaching unit in their conversations and then provided them with examples. In this pair, there were a total of 10 verbal third position responses. Subject 1 produced one and Subject 2 produced nine of them. There are a couple of reasons why Subject 2 produced nine verbal third position responses. First, he separated multiple component questions into separate questions and produced a *d’accord* after each response. Second, there were sequences in which Subject 1 produced more talk after

Subject 2 produced an initial third position *d'accord*, and then acknowledged this continued new talk with another *d'accord*. In comparison with the pre-task phase where she produced four out of 12 third position responses or 33% of total production, Subject 1 produced one out of six actual slots or about 17% production in the post-task. Due to the differences in slots available, it appears that she was consistent in her production. When comparing the pre-task and post-task results for Subject 2, it is interesting to see that he produced one out of 12 for 8% production in the pre-task and nine total responses, three above the six slots for the post-task. As was stated earlier, he broke multi-component questions up into single questions and responded to each single question and also used *d'accord* more than once during expanded talk. This can most likely be attributed to the teacher having explicitly encouraged this pair to use the third position responses from the task-phase in their conversation. The types of verbal third position responses used by Pair A included *d'accord*/ 'all right' and *oui*/ 'yeah' to acknowledge the receipt of new information provided in answers. These third position responses were used in the same way as previously described in other pairs. These responses used by both subjects when acknowledging new information were native-like because the French native speakers in the corpus used *d'accord* and *oui* similarly to acknowledge new information. The types of sequences engendered by these third position responses varied between expanded sequences or closed sequences depending on which tokens were used. For the sequences using *oui*, the person producing it considered the topic complete and moved on to the next topic. However, several of the sequences in which *d'accord* was produced were expanded and the *d'accord* was used several times to acknowledge the continually forthcoming information.

5.5.6 Discussion of Post-task Questionnaire

Following the completion of the post-task, each subject was asked to fill out a questionnaire to rate and then comment on the overall effectiveness of the pre-task and task phases and to explain in more detail his/her overall language goals. Please see Appendix (F) for a copy of the post-task questionnaire. There were three questions asking subjects to rate the pre-task, post-task, and the importance of sounding like a native speaker. For the first question asking subjects to rate the overall effectiveness of the pre-task questions in relation to the speaking task, subjects were asked to rate the effectiveness on a scale of 1 (completely ineffective) to 5 (greatly effective). The average rating for the effectiveness of the pre-task was 4.33. The second rating question asked subjects to rate the overall effectiveness of the task phase in helping them to improve their French speaking skills on a scale of 1 to 5. The average rating for the effectiveness of the task phase was 4.33. The final rating question asked subjects to rate the importance of sounding like a French native speaker when speaking French on a scale of 1 to five. The average rating for the importance of sounding like a French native speaker was 4.44.

Most of the subjects commented that the pre-task phase was helpful in preparation for the speaking task and that the materials (i.e. oral exam review questions) were helpful during the pre-task phase. One subject commented that the pre-task phase was only helpful because there was a conversation partner to practice listening with and that there needed to be more listening involved in order to prepare for the types of questions that were asked. This same subject also said it was easy to read and respond to questions when “one can see the words they need to see.” Most of the subjects also commented that the task phase speaking activities and materials were very helpful towards their goal of improving their spoken French. One subject even commented.

“I realized that confirming a response is just as important in French as in English” after completing the study.

In terms of improving the quality of the study and the materials, several subjects commented that the study would have been more helpful if there was more time dedicated to practice using the third position responses in class. Another subject commented that he would have liked to have learned how to respond to more specific types of questions, such as *wh*-questions (e.g. *pourquoi*/ ‘why,’ etc.). A couple of subjects also commented that it would be helpful to pair some learners of French with a native speaker in order to get a comparison of how both perceive the study.

For the overall language goals, most subjects reported that their main reason for learning French at the University of Illinois was to be able to travel and work in France or French-speaking countries and carry on conversations with native speakers. One subject even commented that it was important to be perceived as a native speaker and not as an American tourist.

Given this largely overall positive feedback, it is clear that the subjects felt like they benefitted from participating in the study, as it helped them to achieve their goals of being able to communicate in French for future careers and travel. The fact the subjects rated the overall effectiveness of the study quite high is indeed motivation for language teachers to include similar naturalistic pedagogical materials in their lesson plans. The comments from subjects stating that the study helped them to move towards their goal of being able to communicate effectively with native speakers is also motivation for instructors to use pedagogical materials that reflect how native speakers actually talk in certain contexts. Finally, comments from some subjects saying that they would have liked to practice the third position responses more regularly

in class as well as learn other types of responses to questions demonstrate that learners oriented to the benefits of using naturalistic materials in order to sound more native-like. That is, they realized the benefits from this study that took place during one week in a four week course, and they wanted more time dedicated to helping them sound more native-like. Learners actually asking for more time to practice something that will help them sound more like native-speakers (and therefore accomplish their goals) is something that should make language instructors happy and willing to do!

Summary of Post-task Phase

Overall, the number of verbal third position responses increased from the pre-task phase to the post-task phase. Six out of the eight subjects used at least one verbal third position response in their talk. The acknowledgement token *D'accord*/ 'all right' was the most frequently occurring third position response to be counted amongst those produced by the subjects. Other third position responses that were taught in the task phase and then used in the post-task included assessments and surprised/newsworthy responses. The acknowledgement token *oui*/ 'yeah' was also used in conversations even though it was not taught during the lesson. However, since *oui* is such a frequently occurring acknowledgement token in English and serves the same purpose in French, as evidenced by the native speakers in the corpus, it is not surprising that learners would use it as they do in English.

Non-verbal third position responses also occurred in the post-task phase. Similar to the pre-task phase, the most common was nodding, used to confirm or acknowledge new information. The nods occurred either along with an acknowledgement token like *oui* or else alone in the place of a verbal third position response. Another gesture that was used to

acknowledge the receipt of information was a smile. This gesture occurred in place of a verbal third position response. A smile was also used when a subject, whose pronunciation had been corrected by the teacher, reproduced the correct pronunciation while gazing at the teacher so that the teacher was aware of the student's correct pronunciation.

The subjects also used the third position responses in a native-like fashion in that they were used similarly by the French native speakers in the corpus that was discussed in Chapter 4. The post-task questionnaire found that the majority of subjects found the study helpful in terms of helping them improve their speaking skills and working towards their goal of being able to communicate effectively in French.

5.6 Conclusion

This chapter discussed a study that was designed to examine the degree to which learners of French were able to successfully incorporate third position responses in their conversational repertoires. As seen in the results discussed above, the subjects were largely able to retain and use the third position responses they learned and practiced during the task phase. In other words, they were successful at acquiring pragmatically appropriate responses for certain contexts and situations in French. These results are similar to what Huth and Taleghani-Nikazm (2006) found in their study of teaching pragmatically appropriate telephone openings to learners of German. That is, learners of a foreign language can be taught how to use pragmatically appropriate expressions in their own talk using naturalistic pedagogical materials.

However, it should be pointed out that two of the subjects did not produce any verbal third position responses during the post-task phase. There are a couple of possible explanations for this, similar to what Huth (2006) found in his study of teaching pragmatics to beginning

learners of German. One possible explanation is that the subjects failed to transfer the French model taught to them during the task phase and instead used the typical question-answer, question-answer sequence they were accustomed to in class. Learners must consciously acquire the model in order to successfully achieve pragmatic transfer, and if they have not yet done so, the transfer is not yet present (Huth 2006). Another probable issue is that of alignment and intersubjectivity, when one person must be prepared to orient to/align with the other in order to know what comes next. If one person is not yet pragmatically advanced enough to understand this alignment, then the transfer of the model (i.e. using the verbal third position responses) might not occur. It appears that the second reason is the best possible explanation because the subjects who did not produce any verbal third position responses in the post-task did produce them in the pre-task, so they were already aware of how to use verbal third position responses. However, my data do not allow me to draw any supportable conclusion at this time. A follow-up study will hopefully shed more light on to this issue.

Overall, the data show that the majority of subjects were able to increase the number of verbal third position responses after the explicit instruction of the teaching unit. Specifically, there was a notable increase in the percentage of verbal third responses produced in the post-task phase when compared to the percentage of verbal third position responses produced in the pre-task phase. The percentage of verbal third position responses produced is relative to the number of third position slots available across the pairs for each phase. That is, given the numerical difference in slots between both phases, the percentages of verbal third position responses produced show that production of the third position responses did increase quite a bit. The observed increase in production of responses suggests that, similar to findings by Huth (2006), it is possible to successfully teach pragmatics. That is, when learners are presented with

instructions on how to use language that is pragmatically appropriate for a given situation and then given an opportunity to practice it, the results show that pragmatically appropriate language can be used successfully in a role-play.

Another interesting item to consider is that the types of third position responses do not appear to differ greatly between the pre-task and post-task phases. That is, the types of third position responses that were used were similar before and after the teaching unit. One slight difference that I noticed was that the acknowledgement token *oui*/ 'yeah' was used more in the pre-task phase than in the post-task phase. A possible reason for this is that *yeah* is so easy to transfer from English to French that most language learners just do it. In the teaching unit it was not taught, so the more recent third position responses may have taken over. Additionally, the two most frequent third position responses in the French native speaker corpus are *d'accord* and *oui*, in that order. Since subjects produced *d'accord* the most in the post-task, they now sound more native-like because they produced this token the most frequently, just as the French native speakers did in the corpus. It would be interesting to compare these results with a delayed post-test to see which tokens are used by learners after a month or more. It is also necessary to point out again that, despite the focus on the production of verbal third position responses and the percentage of production based on a particular number of slots for third position responses, it is not always the case that third position responses are required (and that their absence is relevantly missing). That is, sometimes a situation arises in which a third position response is not required and therefore the absence of one will be oriented to as normal by the fellow co-participant.

Concerning the performance of certain pairs in the study, it is interesting to look more closely at Pair #3 and Pair A, who produced the most verbal third position responses in the pre-task and post-task phases. For Pair #3, especially Subject #1, she was a subject who reported

having her first exposure to French outside of the language classroom. She also reported being immersed in a French-speaking environment for a total of three months. She was also an older subject who probably had advanced pragmatic awareness from being immersed in a French-speaking environment for that period of time. In the case of Pair A, both of these subjects had been exposed to several different languages other than French. Subject 1 reported having an advanced level of proficiency in Spanish and an intermediate level of proficiency in Italian.. Subject 2 reported being a native speaker of Chinese and having a near-native level of proficiency in English. With this background in languages, he was most likely able to pick up on the pragmatically appropriate responses fairly easily too.

One potential limit to address in the current study is that similar to Huth and Taleghani-Nikazm (2006), not every subject in the study was able to successfully transfer the pragmatic knowledge of third position responses from the teaching unit into their own conversational repertoires. While the majority of subjects (eight out of ten) were able to successfully transfer the knowledge and incorporate at least one or more third position responses into their conversational repertoires in the post-task phase, there were still two subjects who did not produce any verbal third position responses. This study cannot report on why these subjects did not transfer the knowledge. However, both of the subjects who did not use verbal third position responses, did use non-verbal third position responses like nods and smiles to acknowledge the answers given by their conversation partner. They were able to successfully transfer some of their pragmatic knowledge concerning body language from English to French despite body language and gestures not being part of the task phase lesson plan. Please see above for an explanation of possible reasons why the pragmatic transfer did not happen for these two subjects.

Chapter 6: Conclusion

At the start of this project there were two major objectives that I set out to accomplish: 1) develop an understanding of how French native speakers used third position responses when interacting with one another, and 2) design and implement a teaching unit that would see how successful (or not) learners were at incorporating these third position responses into their own conversational repertoires. Both of these objectives have been successfully fulfilled now that the project has come to an end. Each part of the project, the analysis of how French native speakers use third position responses and the teaching unit on the acquisition of pragmatics for learners, will briefly be summarized below followed by a discussion of the impact of these findings. Next a brief discussion of future research questions stemming from the current study will be presented and discussed.

The first part of the project aimed to develop an understanding of how French native speakers used third position responses in native speaker-native speaker interactions. This was the first time that such a study of third position responses (i.e., a question-answer-follow up response sequence) had been carried out in French. As was mentioned in Chapter 4, the French native speaker interactions came from a corpus consisting of nine hours of audio and video recordings of everyday conversational situations such as at the meal table or else on the telephone. The data are naturalistic, meaning that the interactions would still occur regardless if the researcher was present or not. The corpus consisted of ten French native speakers who spoke the Metropolitan variety of French.

Following the discovery of the different question-answer-follow up response sequences in the corpus, the various third position responses that were encountered were categorized and then analyzed. The analysis of the third position responses yielded a range of categories that

included *ahhh* / ‘ohhh,’ announcements, assessments (both positive and negative), confirmation, *d’accord* / ‘all right,’ *merci* / ‘thanks,’ offers, *ok*, *oui* / ‘yes,’ *ouais* / ‘yeah,’ remembering, surprised responses, and understanding. Out of all these categories, the ones that occurred the most frequently in the corpus and therefore became the focus of the analysis were *ahhh* / ‘ohhh,’ *ok*, *d’accord* / ‘all right,’ *oui* / ‘yes’ and *ouais* / ‘yeah,’ assessments (positive and negative), composites (e.g. *d’accord ok* / ‘all right ok’), and topicalization. These selected categories were for the most part sequence-closing thirds. That is, the co-participant who produced them was orienting to the topic of talk at hand to be near completion and was therefore moving to close down the sequence of talk when producing one of these third position responses. The one exception to this was the topicalization category when the talk was oriented to as newsworthy and therefore the sequenced was actually expanded to allow for further discussion of the topic.

For these selected third position categories, it was found that they carried out the same functions in French as their counterparts in English and other languages. For the third position response *ahhh* / ‘ohhh’ it was used to acknowledge the receipt of new information and therefore a change of state from not-knowing to now-knowing (Heritage 1984). The *ahh* was therefore similar to English (Schegloff 2007) and other languages (Betz & Golato 2008, Golato & Betz 2008, Golato 2010, Mori 2006). The third position responses *ok* and *d’accord* / ‘all right’ both acknowledge the receipt of new information in French. This is similar to their counterparts in English (Guthrie 1997, Schegloff 2007) and German (Barske 2009). For the categories *oui* / ‘yes’ and *ouais* / ‘yeah’ in the third position, they both serve as acknowledgements for the receipt of information in the prior turn. This is similar to *yes* and *yeah* in English that acknowledge the receipt of new information (Drummond & Hopper 1993, Jefferson 1984). The *oui* in French also serves as a continuer when the previous talk (SPP) is not made relevant and does not require an

acknowledgement. This is similar to *yes* or *yeah* in English (Jefferson) or Dutch (Mazeland 1990).

When assessments are produced in third position in French (either positive or negative), they are done in order to evaluate some event that is being talked into relevance, such as the well-being of the other person. The co-participant who produces the assessment is taking up a particular stance after receiving the new information. This is similar to assessments in English (Goodwin & Goodwin 1987, Schegloff 2007). Concerning composites (i.e. *ah ok d'accord*/ 'oh ok all right') in French, it was observed that each token in the composite response has a specific role. That is, for the sample token *ah ok d'accord*/ 'oh ok all right,' the *ah* signifies a change of stake token and the *ok d'accord* acknowledges the receipt of new information that caused the change of stake from not-knowing to now-knowing. This is similar to composites in English (Liddicoat 2007, Schegloff 2007). For topicalization, the French co-participant who produces the token is orienting to the prior talk as newsworthy and warranting further talk. This expands the sequence whereas the others above are mainly used to close down a sequence of talk. This is similar to topicalization in English (Schegloff 2007) and other languages (Clift & Helani 2010, Melander & Sahlström 2009, Selting 1996).

The findings for the above third position responses make an important contribution to the literature because this is the first study to show the various third position responses in French and the functions for which they are used. It is important to know about these third position responses in French so that we can better understand various components of interaction amongst French native speakers. Examples include how French native speakers align with one another as the talk proceeds, how they structure talk for various actions such as receiving and confirming new information, and how they evaluate an entity that is talked into existence.

Furthermore, the above findings are important for learners who want to master a language. That is, it is essential for anyone whose goal it is to speak French as native-like as possible to know when and how to use these tokens in conversation. Doing so will allow the conversation to proceed naturally and smoothly, and the desired action can be accomplished. That is, it is important to first learn how French native speakers use these third position responses, whether to acknowledge new information or positively assess something, so that people learning French with the goal to speak native-like can use these follow-up responses appropriately. Now that the above third position responses have been presented and analyzed, people wishing to use them in order to sound more like native speakers are able to see how native speakers use them and then transfer them accordingly.

After analyzing the above third position categories, I took the most frequently occurring ones (assessments, understanding, surprise, acknowledging/accepting new information) and developed a teaching unit to see how well learners of French could incorporate these third position responses into their conversational repertoires during a speaking role-play task. I was motivated to develop such a study for learners of French by the lack of pedagogical materials based on naturalistic data for teaching students how to increase their pragmatic accuracy and communicative competence in a language (Wong 2002). Previous work on using naturalistic pedagogical materials to teach the acquisition of pragmatics (Huth 2007; Huth & Taleghani-Nikazm 2006; Wong & Waring 2010) inspired me to develop my own lesson plan. Additionally, the need for learners to be engaged in authentic tasks to help them use language that they would normally encounter in real-world situations (Ellis 2003) was more motivation for me to develop a speaking task that allowed learners to practice using third position responses they would most likely encounter when speaking with French native speakers.

In order to compare how subjects in the study did before and after the speaking task, I recorded them speaking before in a pre-task phase and then after in a post-task phase. In the pre-task phase that occurred one day before the speaking task, it was noted that there were a total 14 verbal third position responses produced across the four pairs of subjects whose interactions were analyzed for the study. There was also an additional pair that was analyzed separately, and who produced six such responses. There were a total of 80 possible slots across the four pairs for learners to produce a third position response. That is, each pair asked each other 20 questions during the pre-task phase. Following the teaching unit during which the subjects were explicitly taught how to use the aforementioned third position responses and given the opportunity to practice with them in a role-play speaking task, the post-task occurred three days later. It was noted that the number of verbal third position responses across the four pairs did increase up to 22 across the four pairs whose interactions were analyzed. For the post-task phase, there were a total of 48 possible slots across the four pairs for the subjects to produce a third position response. That is, each pair asked each other 12 questions during the post-task phase. For the post-task phase, it was noted that 22 total third position responses across the four pairs were produced. There was a pair that was analyzed separately, and they produced a total of 10.

Another interesting aspect to consider was the appropriateness of the language use when subjects produced their third position responses during the interactions. When the subjects' third position responses were analyzed, it was shown that the learners used the responses in their respective contexts similarly to how the French native speakers from the corpus used them. This shows that learners can be taught how to successfully transfer pragmatic knowledge into their own repertoires, just as Huth & Taleghani-Nikazm (2006) demonstrated for learners of German.

Certain factors such as exposure to several languages and immersion in a French-speaking environment certainly played a role for certain subjects like Subject 1 in Pair #3.

Based on the overall positive feedback provided by the subjects in their post-task questionnaires, it is clear that they believe they benefited from taking part in the study and that doing so helped them move closer to their language-learning goals. Most of them wanted to learn French so they could work and travel within the French-speaking world, so a major goal for all of them was to be able to communicate with French native speakers. Most of the subjects reported that this study helped them move closer to this goal and were thankful for the experience of learning how to sound more native-like in certain contexts. Several also commented that they would have liked to practice more regularly with these third position responses and wanted to learn about more types of responses to questions. This is indeed motivation for integrating such lessons based on naturalistic materials into the language curriculum. Furthermore, the fact that I was able to integrate my lesson plan into the curriculum by adapting the role-play activity to an actual lesson from the textbook demonstrates that instructors are able to find certain contexts in which naturalistic language materials can be used. Please consult Appendix (F) for the complete lesson plan. Further suggestions on how to integrate naturalistic materials into the language curriculum can be found in Huth (2007) and Huth & Taleghani-Nikazm (2006).

One limit to the study that must be addressed is that just like the Huth & Taleghani-Nikazm (2006) study, not all the subjects in my study were able to successfully transfer the pragmatic knowledge from the teaching unit into their own conversational repertoires during the post-task phase. However, the majority (six out of eight) were at least able to produce one or more third position responses in the post-task phase. These results show, as Huth (2006)

demonstrates, that pragmatics can be learned following formal instruction with naturalistic materials and the opportunity to practice the materials. Using a naturalistic model of conversation that teaches learners how to speak like native speakers do in native-native interactions is essential for learners whose goal it is to be able to speak like native speakers. Many of the learners in my study and those in Wilkinson (2002) expressed the desire to sound like native speakers in French and wanted different approaches to learning how to speak in the classroom. If learners are going to sound native-like and therefore be able to accomplish their goals in the target language, then they need to be provided with pragmatically accurate ways of speaking that will allow their talk with native speakers to progress naturally and smoothly.

Based on the success of this initial study, I would like to continue working within the domains of third position responses in French native speaker-native speaker interaction and also in the domain of pragmatic acquisition for learners of French. Concerning the domain of French native speaker-native speaker interaction, there are several avenues related to this study that are worth exploring further. One is exploring how third position tokens are used to close down entire conversations, especially since this study only looked at how individual sequences are closed down. Another native speaker-native speaker avenue worth exploring is to analyze the other environments (i.e., outside third positions) in which these tokens are used.

Concerning the domain of pragmatic acquisition for learners of French, based on the results of this study, two future research questions that I would like to address are: 1) Why are certain learners not able to use and retain the pragmatic knowledge from a foreign language, and 2) What would the outcome be for other third position categories (in the corpus but not used in this study)? These two questions are of particular interest because if learner difficulty can be addressed and even overcome, this would provide valuable information for language instructors

on how to more effectively present the materials. It would also be beneficial to see to what degree learners incorporate these other less frequently occurring categories. If learners can successfully incorporate the less frequently occurring categories effectively than some of the more frequently occurring ones, then instructors will be able to focus solely on the teaching of categories that are the most successfully incorporated and maximize precious classroom time. Answering the above questions will provide instructors with the necessary tools and preparation to teach effectively with naturalistic materials. If a student's ultimate goal is to sound as native-like as possible, language instructors should be doing all that they can, including the presentation of pragmatically accurate materials, so that their students are given the extra push that they need towards accomplishing their goals.

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Appendix A: Pre-task Phase Questions

Révision pour l'examen oral de mi-semestre FR 102, Printemps 2011

Sujet 1a: Les vacances et la ville

Saluez (*greet*) votre partenaire et demandez-lui son nom. Puis posez les questions suivantes.

1. Où es-tu allé(e) pour les vacances d'hiver ?
2. Est-ce que tu as visité une ville qui n'est pas dans l'Illinois ? Quelle ville ?
3. Quelle est ta ville préférée pour les vacances ?
4. Qu'est-ce que tu vas faire ce week-end ?
5. Quelle est ta destination idéale pour les vacances ?

Sujet 2a: Les médias et la communication

Saluez (*greet*) votre partenaire et demandez-lui son nom. Puis posez les questions suivantes.

1. Quels médias sont indispensables aujourd'hui ?
2. Quels sont les avantages d'un blog ?
3. Est-ce qu'il y a des problèmes avec les nouveaux médias ?
4. As-tu déjà construit un site web ? Pour qui ? C'était difficile ?
5. Est-ce que tu vas utiliser Internet pour planifier ton futur ?

Sujet 3a: Le transport

Saluez (*greet*) votre partenaire et demandez-lui son nom. Puis posez les questions suivantes.

1. Quel est un moyen de transport pratique pour aller loin ?
2. Quel moyen de transport as-tu utilisé pour venir ici en classe aujourd'hui ?
3. Quel moyen de transport n'est pas pratique sur le campus ?
4. As-tu une voiture ? Si oui, quelle marque ? Si non, quel moyen de transport préfères-tu ?
5. Quand tu conduis, est-ce que tu roules vite ou lentement ?
6. As-tu déjà pris l'avion ? Pour aller où ?

Sujet 4a: La vie de tous les jours et les arts

Saluez (*greet*) votre partenaire et demandez-lui son nom. Puis posez les questions suivantes.

1. Est-ce que c'est normal d'aimer les arts ? Pourquoi (pas) ?
2. Es-tu déjà allé dans un bon musée ? C'était comment ?
3. Aimes-tu les livres ? Lesquels et pourquoi / Pourquoi pas ?
4. Est-ce que tu as un film préféré ? Pourquoi ? Qui est le réalisateur et qui sont les acteurs ?

5. Est-ce que tu t'endors jamais dans les salles de cinéma?
6. Est-ce que c'est important de s'habiller bien, de bien se raser / se maquiller ? Pourquoi (pas)?

Appendix B: Instructor Lesson Plan for Teaching Unit (Task Phase)

French 102 Conversation Study Summer 2011 Instructor Lesson Sheet

French 102 Conversation Study: Part Two Instructor Sheet

Activité I. (Estimated time 5 minutes)

- You can start the activity by asking students why it's important to ask the right kind of question and receive the right type of response for any type of situation; they can give some answers
- The students can work in pairs for a few minutes to answer the questions. You can call on some pairs to give their answers and compare what people said at the beginning versus now
- Next have them see whether or not their answers are the same or different after completing *Activité I* on the lesson hand-out.

Activité II. (Estimated time 25 minutes)

- Tell students that these examples of real French conversations will help them to sound more native-like when speaking with French native speakers. These specific examples focus on questions, answers, and follow-up responses.
- For each example, you can play the sound file or video file and then have the students repeat the underlined word out loud. They can then answer the questions that follow. You can then briefly go over the answers with them before moving on to the next example.
- The sound and video files each have a specific file name and are available at my UIUC Netfiles at: <https://netfiles.uiuc.edu/mfoster2/www/>; then click on "French 102 Study – Audio and Video Files" to find all the files.

Situation 1 (Positive assessments)

- *File name: Situation 1 – Positive assessment*
- Play the sound or video file, have students repeat the underlined expression, and have students answer the questions for 1-2 minutes. You can then briefly go over the answers before moving on to the next example.

Situation 2 (Negative assessments)

- *File name: Situation 2 – Negative assessment*
- Play the sound or video file, have students repeat the underlined expression, and have students answer the questions for 1-2 minutes. You can then briefly go over the answers before moving on to the next example.

Situation 3 (Making sure you understand something)

- *File names (2 examples): Situation 3a – Je vais le voir; Situation 3b – Lentamente*
- Play the sound or video file, have students repeat the underlined expression, and have students answer the questions for 1-2 minutes. You can then briefly go over the answers before moving on to the next example.

Situation 4 (What to say when you're surprised)

- *File names (3 examples): Situation 4a – Oh là là; Situation 4b – Oh ben dis donc ; Situation 4c – Ah bon*
- Play the sound or video file, have students repeat the underlined expression, and have students answer the questions for 1-2 minutes. You can then briefly go over the answers before moving on to the next example.

Situation 5 (Acknowledging or accepting new information with D'accord)

- *File names (2 examples): Situation 5a – D'accord #1; Situation #2 – D'accord #2*
- Play the sound or video file, have students repeat the underlined expression, and have students answer the questions for 1-2 minutes. You can then briefly go over the answers before moving on to the next example.

Situation 6 (Acknowledging or accepting new information with Ok)

- *File names (2 examples): Situation 6a – OK #1; Situation 6b – OK#2*
- Play the sound or video file, have students repeat the underlined expression, and have students answer the questions for 1-2 minutes. You can then briefly go over the answers before moving on to the next example.

Activité III. (Estimated time 5 minutes)

- This activity relates the new information above to the chapter theme of city vocabulary and lets them practice the new information a little
- Tell the students to read through each situation; fill in the blank with the appropriate response, and then answer the discussion questions
- Go over the answers briefly before moving on to *Activité IV*

Activité IV. (Estimated time 10 minutes)

- Explain the speaking role-play to students: one student is a tourist visiting a large city (Paris or Bordeaux) and asks questions (like in the *Modèle*), the other student acts like he/she is from that city and gives answers (like in the *Modèle*), the student who then asked the question gives an appropriate follow-up response (like in the *Modèle*)
- Each person should ask five questions and then change roles so the other can ask questions (If time is running short, they only need to ask 2-3 questions)
- Students can use the examples from the different situations above or else the examples from the *Modèle* in their own conversations; they can also vocabulary listed on the pages in the hand-out
- All of the pairs that are participating in the study will be video recorded; I will start recording with the cameras when the students are starting to prepare the activity; I will walk around to help them with questions while they prepare their conversations

Appendix C: Student Hand-out during Teaching Unit (Task Phase)

French 102
Summer 2011
Conversational Study

Lesson on French Question-Answer-Response Sequences

I) Activité I: Qu'est-ce qu'on dit? (What does one say ?)

Directions : Before working with actual examples of French conversation, take a couple minutes to discuss and respond to the following questions with your partner. Be prepared to share your answers with the rest of the class.

1) Look at the hypothetical examples below in which person A asks a question and person B gives an answer. Next fill in the blank with a response that you would normally expect person A to use in that situation.

Example 1:

A: Is Assembly Hall located at 1800 South First Street in Champaign?

B: Yeah.

A: _____.

Example 2:

A: When do classes start this fall?

B: August 22nd.

A: _____.

Example 3:

A: Is that your new car?

B: Yeah, I bought it last week.

A: _____.

2) Does a follow-up response always have to come afterwards, or are there situations where the blank can be left empty?

3) Why do you think some responses are more logical and/or appropriate than others for a given situation in which someone asks a particular type of question and receives a particular type of answer?

4) Please write down the utterances you have provided for the examples. Do you think your answer to question #3 is something that only holds true for English, or is it something that holds true across other languages like French?

Activité II: Quelques expressions utiles pour des situations diverses (Useful expressions for different situations)

Directions : Now that you have thought about appropriate expressions for different conversational situations in English, your instructor will present various examples of actual French native speaker conversations which involve particular types of questions and require appropriate answers and follow-up responses. These examples will help you sound more native-like when speaking French with French native speakers.

A) First, watch and listen to the recordings of the French native speakers in different types of conversational situations and then repeat them after your instructor. Next, pay attention to the type of question being asked (i.e., is it a question asking for information, or a question to verify a person's understanding of something?) and then to the appropriate answer and follow-up response given. The follow-up response type to focus on is **bold and underlined**. Your instructor will help you to distinguish between these different situations.

Situation 1: Assessments (Positive)

Context : Elodie is asking Charles if he has read a certain book and then assesses the book.

01	Elodie: Heh. Est-ce que tu as lu <i>Le Moine</i> de Lewis?	Heh. Have you read <i>The Monk</i> by Lewis?
02	Charles: Non.	No
03	Elodie: <u>Ca c'est très bien aussi</u> toi qui aimes bien tout ce qui est gothique.	That's also really good since you like everything that is-gothic.
04	Elodie : Enlèvement d'un jeune vierge.	Kidnapping a young virgin.
05	Elodie : Prêtre fou.	Crazy priest.
06	Elodie & Charles : Heh heh	Heh heh.

- What kind of question is being asked here?
- Why is line 3 an appropriate response?

Situation 2 : Assessments (Negative)

Context : Sylvie is asking Nathalie how she is doing at the beginning of a phone call and then assesses Nathalie's current state of health.

01	Sylvie: Comment vas-tu?	How are you?
02	Nathalie: Salut.	Hey.
03	Nathalie: Ça va ça va.	Not bad. Not bad.
04	Nathalie: Je - j'ai toujours la voix enrouée comme d'habitude oui.	Yeah, I – I still have a hoarse voice like usual.
05	Sylvie: <u>Oh mince!</u>	Oh shoot!
06	Nathalie: Si.	Yep.

- What kind of question is being asked here?
- Why is line 3 an appropriate response?

Situation 3: Making sure you understand something

Context: Molly and Valérie are talking about the different steps of baking a cake and Valérie asks what to do first.

01	Valérie: Et donc qu'est-ce que tu fais en premier généralement ?	And so what do you generally do first?
02	Molly: Et bien là tu vas le voir.	Well you're gonna see
03	Valérie: <u>Je vais le voir.</u>	I'm gonna see.
04	Molly: Voilà.	There you go.
05	Valérie: Exactement.	Exactly.

- What kind of question is being asked here?
- What does Valérie say to show that she is trying to understand what will happen next?
- How does Molly confirm that Valérie's understanding is correct?

Context: Roger asks Coré what his afternoon plans are following lunch.

01	Roger: Alors cet après-midi tu vas te reposer ?	So you're gonna relax this afternoon ?
02	Coré: Uhh ça va être lentamente (Italian).	Uhh it's gonna be easy-going.
03	Roger: <u>Lentamente.</u>	Easy-going.
04	Coré: Ah ouais.	Ah yeah.
05	Roger: Ha ha.	Ha ha.

- What kind of question is being asked here?
- What does Roger do to show that he understands the answer?
- What kind of confirmation does Coré give to show that Roger is correct?

Situation 4: What to say when you're surprised

Context: Sylvie is asking Nathalie about arriving late on the first day of class.

01	Sylvie: Donc t'es arrivée en retard pour le premier cours ?	So you arrived late for the first class ?
02	Nathalie: Oui j'suis arrivée un peu en retard j'suis arrivée	Yeah I arrived a little bit late I arrived
03	Nathalie: mais vraiment je je je me suis dépêchée quoi.	but really I- I- I- I hurried up you know.
04	Sylvie: <u>Oh là là!</u>	Oh gosh!
05	Nathalie: Oui je suis arrivée entre cinq et dix minutes de retard.	Yeah I arrived between five and ten minutes late.

- What kind of question is being asked here?
- Which expression is used to show surprise?
- Notice the difference in pronunciation between the Oh in French and the Oh in English. Your instructor can repeat these two with you to help you hear and produce the difference.

Context: Geneviève is asking Sylvie about what she did over the winter break.

01	Geneviève: Et vous êtes allés vous êtes allés chez les parents de Ryan ?	And you went you went to Ryan's parents' house ?
02	Sylvie: Oui tout à fait.	Yes exactly.
03	Sylvie: On a-	We were-
04	Geneviève: <u>Oh ben dis donc.</u>	Oh well you don't say.
05	Sylvie: On a fait je sais pas combien d'heures de de voiture.	I don't know how many hours we were in the the car.
06	Geneviève: Ah oui.	Ah yeah.
07	Sylvie: J'en peux plus.	I can't take any more.
08	Sylvie: Ça on met six heures et demie de route pour aller chez ses parents.	It takes six and a half hours to go to his parents' house.
09	Geneviève: <u>Oh là là!</u>	Oh my!

- What kind of question is being asked here?
- Which responses can be used to show surprise at the answer that is given?

Context: Fabiola is asking Benjamin about a wedding he went to in which the couple is a mix of French and Arabic origin.

01	Fabiola: C'est un mariage qui est même uhh.	It's a marriage that's even uhh.
02	Fabiola: C'est pas c'est un mariage mélan métissé? Ou uh c'est?	It's not it's a mi- mixed marriage? Or uhh is it?
03	Roger: Ooo (incomp.) sans	Ooo (incomp.) without
04	Fabiola: Y avait pas mal de musique ehh ?	There was a lot of music ehh ?
05	Benjamin: Il y avait plusieurs nationalités.	There were several nationalitie
06	Fabiola: <u>Ah bon?</u>	Oh really?
07	Benjamin : Marocaine, tunisien, syrienne, américaine.	Moroccan, Tunisian, Syrian, American.

- Note that *ah bon* is an interjection roughly equivalent to “oh, really?” and with a similar range of uses (e.g., acknowledging what someone just said, seeking further information, expressing surprise, doubt, etc.).

Situation 5: Acknowledging or accepting new information with *D'accord*

Context: Sylvie is asking Nathalie about the low winter temperatures in her region of France.

01	Sylvie: Quel est le minimum dans le nord Pas-de-Calais ?	What is the lowest temperature in the north Pas-de-Calais?
02	Nathalie: Hhhh oui en fait il est généralement moins sept moins cinq moins sept.	Hhhh yeah in fact it's generally minus seven minus five minus seven.
03	Sylvie: <u>D'accord.</u>	Alright.
04	Nathalie: Je pense.	I think.
05	Sylvie: OK.	OK.

Context: Sylvie asks Nathalie if she went home to France during the winter break.

01	Sylvie: Donc tu es rentrée en France pour les vacances de Noël ?	So you went back to France for Christmas vacation ?
02	Nathalie: Oui pendant deux semaines ouais mmmhhmmm.	Yeah for two weeks yeah mmmhhmmm.
03	Sylvie: <u>D'accord.</u>	Alright.

- What kinds of questions are being asked in these two examples?
- In these two instances, what kind of role does the *d'accord* seem to be playing?

Situation 6: Acknowledging or accepting new information with *OK*

Context: Valérie is asking Molly about how to make garlic purée.

01	Valérie: Donc tu fais par tu le fais par fondre-	So you make by you make it by melting-
02	Molly: Je le fais avec-	I make it with-
03	Valerie: uh avec l'huile d'olive à l'origine?	uhh originally with olive oil?
04	Molly: No.	No.
05	Valérie: <u>OK.</u>	Ok.
06	Molly: Voilà.	There you go.

Context: Sylvie asks Nathalie about the course software that she uses for her class.

01	Sylvie: Est-ce que t'as utilisé t'as ouvert la session sur-	Did you use -y'opened the session on-
02	Nathalie: Oui (voilà)	Yes there you go.
03	Sylvie: Engrade comme je te l'avais expliqué ou pas encore ?	Engrade like I explained it to you or not yet ?
04	Nathalie: Oui oui oui oui oui oui je leur ai même donné leur uh leur code d'accès.	Yes yes yes yes yes yes I even gave them their uh their access code.
05	Sylvie: OK. OK.	OK. OK.
06	Nathalie: Donc uhh oui j'ai uhh en fait ce qui est aussi bien sur ce umm programme c'est qu'on peut mettre des documents uhh pour eux à leur disposition.	So uhh yeah I have uhh in fact what is also nice on this umm program it's that you can put up some documents uhh for them at their disposal.

- What kinds of questions are being asked here?
- What role does the OK seem to play in these situations?

Activité III. Pratiquons avec les nouvelles expressions. (Let's practice with the new expressions.)

Directions: With your partner, fill in the blanks of the following conversations with an appropriate expression from the list below. Be sure to consult the vocabulary on pages 290-293 in *Vis-à-vis* if you have any other word-related questions.

Liste d'expressions: Ah bon ; Oh là là ; Elles sont jolies ; D'accord

Conversation 1:

A : Où est l'église ?

B : C'est sur le Boulevard d'Argent.

A : _____.

Conversation 2 :

A : Est-ce que tu vas au parc ?

B : Oui j'adore les fleurs là-bas (*over there*).

A : _____.

Conversation 3 :

A : Est-ce que tu veux aller au restaurant avec moi ?

B : Non, j'ai perdu (*lost*) mon portefeuille (*wallet*).

A : _____.

Conversation 4 :

A : La mairie est en face de la gare ?

B : Non, c'est à droite de la piscine.

A : _____ ?

B : Oui, c'était (*was*) en face de la gare avant.

- Why did you select the answers you did for each of the conversations above? Look back at the other examples if you need to review the expressions in the list. Be prepared to share your answers and reasons with the rest of the class.

Activité IV. Utilisons les nouvelles expressions dans une conversation (Using the new expressions in a conversation)

Directions : With your conversation partner, you are going to play the role of a tourist seeking two types of information: directions from one famous place to another, and for advice and suggestions on what to do and see at those famous places. One of you will play the role of the tourist asking questions, while the other will play the role of the local person who will give the appropriate answers. The person playing the role of the tourist who is seeking information must be sure to use an appropriate follow-up response in the conversation. Once the person playing the role of the tourist has **asked at least 5 questions and given 5 appropriate follow-up responses to the answer**, switch roles with your partner and start over. Review the examples above and the model below to get started. Use the vocabulary on pages 290 and 292 from *Vis-à-vis* in your conversations as well.

Modèle:

A: Comment fait-on pour aller de Notre Dame au Louvre?

B : On prend le Boulevard St. Michel à droite et puis (*then*) on traverse la Seine. Après on prend la Rue de Rivoli à gauche jusqu'au Louvre.

A : D'accord. (OK.)

A : On peut voir La Joconde (*Mona Lisa*) au Louvre ?

B : Oui.

A : C'est bien !

Appendix D: Subject Language Background Questionnaire

Language Background Questionnaire (native and nonnative speakers of French)

A. General Information

1. Gender: F ☐ M ☐
2. Age:
3. Do you have any vision or hearing problems?
4. University Level: Undergraduate ☐ Graduate ☐

B. Language Background

1. Native language and dialect:
2. Mother's native language:
3. Father's native language:
4. Language(s) spoken at home as a child:
5. Language(s) you spoke during the first five years of your life:
6. Language(s) of instruction in elementary school: _____ in high school: _____
7. Other language(s) you know and proficiency level(s):
 - a. Second language:
Level of proficiency: Beginner ☐ Intermediate ☐ Advanced ☐ Near-native ☐
 - b. Third language:
Level of proficiency: Beginner ☐ Intermediate ☐ Advanced ☐ Near-native ☐
 - c. Fourth language:
Level of proficiency: Beginner ☐ Intermediate ☐ Advanced ☐ Near-native ☐
 - d. Fifth language:
Level of proficiency: Beginner ☐ Intermediate ☐ Advanced ☐ Near-native ☐
8. Weekly use of French and other language(s):
 - a. % weekly use of French:
 - b. % weekly use of English:
 - c. % weekly use of (language) :
 - d. % weekly use of (language) :

(a-d should add up to 100%)

9. With what language do you feel most comfortable at this time?

C. Knowledge of French (nonnative speakers of French only)

1. Age of first exposure to French:

2. Context of first exposure to French: At school [] Outside school [] Both []

3. Total number of years of instruction on/in French:

4. List the specific course(s) you have taken on/in French (code + name) and year taken:

5. List the specific course(s) you are currently taking on/in French (code + name):

6. Age of first immersion in a French-speaking environment (write N/A if not applicable):

7. Total amount of time (all immersions) in a French-speaking environment (write N/A if not applicable):

Appendix E: Subject Post-task Questionnaire

French 102 Learner Study Subject Post-Task Questionnaire

Directions : Please fill out the questions for each section below.

I. The Pre-task phase (Pre-class activity)

1) Please rate the overall effectiveness of the pre-task questions (i.e., the oral midterm review questions) in relation to the speaking task with 1 as completely ineffective and 5 as greatly effective.

1 [] 2 [] 3 [] 4 [] 5 []

2) Please give your opinion on the overall effectiveness of the pre-task:

a) Was it helpful in preparation for the speaking task?

b) Were the materials helpful during the pre-task phase?

II. The Task Phase (In-class and out-of-class speaking activities)

1) Please rate the overall effectiveness of the task phase in helping you improve your French speaking skills with 1 as completely ineffective and 5 as greatly effective.

1 [] 2 [] 3 [] 4 [] 5 []

2) Were the speaking activities helpful towards your goal of improving your spoken French?

3) Were the materials (i.e. pre-class questions, listening and speaking activity hand-outs) used in the activity helpful?

4) What suggestions do you have to improve the quality of the materials or the activities used in this project?

5) Any additional comments or suggestions on this project based on your participation:

III. Overall language goals

1) Please rate the importance of sounding like a French native speaker when you speak French with 1 as unimportant and 5 as very important.

1 [] 2 [] 3 [] 4 [] 5 []

2) What is your main motivation for learning French at Illinois? Please describe below.

3) What do you see yourself doing with your French language skills in the future? Please describe below.

Appendix F: Transcription Notations

Transcription Symbols

The transcription notation system employed for data samples is an adaptation of Gail Jefferson's work (see Atkinson & Heritage (Eds.), 1984).

The symbols may be described as follows:

: Colon(s): Extended or stretched sound, syllable, or word.

___ Underlining: Vocalic emphasis.

(.) Micropause: Brief pause of less than (0.2).

(1.2) Timed Pause: Intervals occurring within and between same or different speaker's utterance.

(()) Double Parentheses: Scenic details.

() Single Parentheses: Transcriptionist doubt.

. Period: Falling vocal pitch.

? Question Marks: Rising vocal pitch.

↑ ↓ Arrows: Pitch resets; marked rising and falling shifts in intonation.

° ° Degree Signs: A passage of talk noticeably softer than surrounding talk.

= Equal Signs: Latching of contiguous utterances, with no interval or overlap.

[] Brackets: Speech overlap.

[[Double Brackets: Simultaneous speech orientations to prior turn.

! Exclamation Points: Animated speech tone.

- Hyphens: Halting, abrupt cut off of sound or word.

> < Less Than/Greater Than Signs: Portions of an utterance delivered at a pace noticeably quicker than surrounding talk.

OKAY CAPS: Extreme loudness compared with surrounding talk.

hhh .hhh H's: Audible outbreaths, possibly laughter. The more h's, the longer the aspiration.
 Aspirations with periods indicate audible inbreaths (e.g., .hhh). H's within
 (e.g., ye(hh)s) parentheses mark within-speech aspirations, possible laughter.

pt Lip Smack: Often preceding an inbreath.

hah Laugh Syllable: Relative closed or open position of laughter
 heh
 hoh

\$ Smile Voice: Laughing/chuckling talk between markers.